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ABSTRACT

The notion of language training for volunteer services, as contrasted with conventional language instruction in the classroom, is explored in this statement of educational philosophy, goals, and guidelines. The major sections focus on: (1) scope of teacher training programs, (2) curriculum of the language teachers' training workshop, (3) major concepts in language training, including teacher training and testing, and (4) language teaching simulation in working groups. Extensive information is found in the appendixes. Sections cover: (1) schedule of the Furudal training program, (2) list of participants, (3) message to the participants by the Secretary General of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, (4) list of language training materials and technical papers presented at the workshop, (5) the St. Cloud Method, (6) situationally reinforced instruction, (7) intensive language training, (8) teachers' training format, (9) language proficiency testing, (10) fascicles on developing materials for language learning (flexible frame, microwave, microtexts, modular approach, and "routine manipulations"), and (11) report of the working group. (RL)

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LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING WORKSHOP

June 15th - 29th, 1969, Furudal, Sweden

by
Mr. Allan Kulakow
and Dr. Earl Stevick

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INTERNATIONAL SECRETARIAT FOR VOLUNTEER SERVICE

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The Furudal Statement represents a consensus of the participants of the iSVS Language Teachers' Training Workshop as to the philosophy, goals and guidelines for language training and trainers for volunteer service organizations. The Statement was drafted by Dr. Earl Stevick, Foreign Service Institute, U.S. Department of State, and Mr. Lennart Öhnell, Language Director, Swedish International Development Authority, at the conclusion of the Workshop, June 28, 1969, in Furudal, Sweden.

THE FURUDAL STATEMENT

(Dr. Earl W. Stevick and Mr. Lennart Öhnell)

Language training for volunteer services differs strikingly from conventional academic language instruction, both in the personnel involved and in the principles which govern it.

Personnel

In conventional instruction, people are of three kinds: textbook writers, teachers and students. A writer has face-to-face contact with few of the teachers who use his book, and with almost none of the students. The teacher sees the writer only on rare occasions, and the students only in class.

In training for volunteer services, these relationships are transformed. The writer is often in close and frequent contact with the teachers who are using his product, and in fact may be on of them. The teacher must be ready to interact with the students not only in the classroom but also in the living quarters, on the sports field, and in the workshop. His role therefore calls for a total commitment of time, energy and personality which is unlike anything required in the usual academic setting.

At the center of this network of human relationships stands a new figure, who in former times did not even exist: the director of language training. This person must of course understand something of the structure of the native and target languages, and he should be a skilled practitioner of language instruction, but his primary role is neither linguist nor teacher. In fact, a mere linguist or a mere pedagogue will fail as a director of language training. His most essential skills are in personal relations and group dynamics.

Principles

The principles which govern language training for volunteer services are two in number.

Leadership

The first principle is that the director of language training must know his own mind. Whatever method he believes in, he must inspire the confidence both of the teaching staff and of the students. Any teacher who feels that he cannot wholeheartedly support the director should not continue as a member of the training team. The value of clear leadership is recognized in most social undertakings. It is especially important in our work, however, because the programs are so short and intensive, and because success in language learning is so vital to the further progress of volunteers.

Building Self-sufficiency

The second principle is that the skills and attitudes of self-sufficiency in language learning are an essential goal in the training of any volunteer. This is especially true in the study of the less widely spoken languages, where end-of-training proficiency is likely to be relatively low. The importance of self-sufficiency becomes most obvious after the volunteer has arrived in the host country, where his ability to continue learning the language without the support of conventional textbooks and trained teachers may prove to be as crucial as the actual level of language proficiency with which he entered the country.

(a) Attitudes of self-sufficiency.

If the trainees are to develop attitudes of self-sufficiency, they must have some experience of making their own decisions and living with the results. This does not mean that they should be required or allowed to plan their entire language program. It does mean that after they have become familiar with the materials and procedures used by the staff, they should have a voice in selecting among them, emphasizing some and de-emphasizing others. It also means that before the end of the course they should have opportunities to devise and try out some of their own materials and procedures, using the training staff as resource persons. The extent to which this kind of responsibility can be transferred to the students will in part reflect the skill with which the staff has conducted the first part of the program.

(b) Skills of self-sufficiency.

We can teach trainees some of the skills of self-sufficiency if we select 5 or 6 simple formats which they come to understand thoroughly, into which they can adapt existing materials, and within which they can when necessary originate their own simple materials with the help of non-professional language teachers.

The relationship between language study and the total training program.

Language training as a whole should center, not on the language itself, but on the role that the volunteers will be expected to play, both professionally and socially, in the host country. On a smaller scale, it may focus on a series of 'tasks' which the trainee tries to accomplish with speakers of the language. Relevance of materials is therefore more urgent than in conventional instruction. Teaching staffs will do more adapting of books that already exist, and they are more likely to originate materials of their own, under the supervision of the director of language training.

Finally, relevant materials and role-centered instruction are possible only to the extent that the training staff has a clear idea of just what demands will be placed on the volunteers in the host country. A statement of these demands may be called a 'target profile'. Satisfactory 'target profiles' are impossible without proper, scientific observation and study, in the host country, of the ways in which the four basic skills of hearing, speaking, reading and writing are necessary for successful performance. This observation and study must furthermore be kept up to date.

The goal of language training is then to prepare competent, self-sufficient volunteers who fit the appropriate target profiles. To this enterprise each member of the training staff commits his skill, his peace of mind, and a portion of his life. The volunteer invests even more. It is, however, the receiving country that has most at stake. The sending organizations have therefore the solemn responsibility to provide adequate financial and administrative support for training and to be sure that each volunteer arrives fully qualified to assume his responsibilities in the host country.

1. SCOPE OF THE LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING PROGRAMS

1.1 Goals

1.1.1 The original goals of the language teachers' training workshop were:

a) Primarily to assist language teachers of volunteer service organizations through an intensive practical training program in improving language instruction and in programming language training in the total volunteer training format;

b) To share information and experience in language training for overseas volunteers and to define needs for improving language instruction; to provide information about new methods, materials, and resources for language training for intensive short-term training;

c) To examine the problems of self-study, continued language study overseas, in-country language training, and international cooperation in teacher training, literacy training, and the development of host country language resources.

1.1.2 At the end of the first week, the participants of the workshop produced a new and supplementary statement of goals:

a) For what 'target profiles' are trainees to be prepared?

b) How can aptitude be ascertained quickly and reliably?

c) What kinds of material exist or can be devised? To what extent should materials be job-oriented?

d) What methods are appropriate for these materials?

e) How can teachers be trained in a short time to use these materials and these methods effectively?

f) What is the role of the director of language training?

g) How can audio and visual devices, including the language laboratory, be used efficiently?

h) How can these methods and materials be used in pre-training courses, at training sites both at home and in host countries, and in subsequent post-training improvement?

i) How can language proficiency be measured quickly and reliably?

j) How can adequate feedback be obtained so that present and future programs may benefit by the experience of past ones?

k) Within this Furudal Workshop:

   1. desire for 'brains trust' panel,

   2. concern for evaluating this workshop,

   3. need to draw up resolutions.

1.2 Participants

(See List in Appendix No. 2)

The members of the Ad Hoc Commission on training suggested that a language teachers' program for all language teachers of volunteer sending organizations would be appropriate, since most of the organizations have no separate planning staffs for language training programs - each teacher is in charge of planning and teaching in his or her respective language. Therefore, the following alternatives were suggested for participation:

a) As many language teachers as possible of volunteer sending organizations, selected by their organization;

b) Designated representative language teachers of the sending organizations;

The following organizations sent participants to the workshop:

Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst	(Germany)
Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers	(Netherlands)
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Division of International Cooperation	(Israel)
Norwegian Agency for International Development	(Norway)
Swedish International Development Authority	(Sweden)
Experiment in International Living	(U.S.A. non-governmental)
Institute of Modern Languages	(U.S.A. non-governmental)

All participants had experience with the problems of language training of volunteers, preparing them for their overseas assignments. The language teachers' needs were especially expressed while discussing the "bottlenecks" of language training (see Section 3.). The educational background of the participants varied, and not all of them had had previous training in teaching a foreign language. Most significant with all participants was their high motivation, their personal involvement in volunteer service, and their devotion to the task of providing an efficient language training program for volunteers.

1.3 Training Team

The composition of the training team was in response to the training needs expressed by the various volunteer sending organizations prior to the workshop. The full-time Workshop training team represented experts experienced in short-term intensive language training for volunteer service organizations and consisted of Dr. Earl Stevick, Professor of Linguistics, Foreign Service Institute, Washington, D. C.; Mr. Lennart Öhnell, Language Director, Swedish International Development Authority; Mr. Allan M. Kulakow, Language Consultant to ISVS and formerly Language Director, U. S. Peace Corps; and Dr. John Rassias, Professor of Romance Languages, Language Director for Dartmouth College Peace Corps Training Center.

In addition, participants acted as trainers in their respective field of experience (see Section 3.).

2. THE CURRICULUM OF THE LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING WORKSHOP

2.1 Methods

2.1.1 All activities provided for maximum involvement of and contributions by the participants. The participants expressed their needs for and expectations from the Workshop. Their responses are included verbatim in the Appendix.

2.1.2 Presentation of specific topics was oriented toward practice rather than theory.

2.1.3 The methods and the trainers were chosen in response to suggestions from the training directors of the member organizations.

2.1.4 A Steering Committee was to have been elected, but because of the small number of participants, the entire group voted to serve in this capacity. The Steering Committee also agreed to the following procedures:

a) The whole group is the planning and evaluation committee.

b) The Training Team and observers and visitors are included in the group.

c) Each meeting should 1) restate the aims of the workshop, 2) evaluate the day's work, 3) give useful critical feedback information to the Training Team, 4) plan the next day's activities.

d) The topics for group work must be clearly defined.

e) Chairmen must keep discussions to the point.

2.2 Content

To prepare a training program which would meet the needs of the participants, an inquiry was sent to the volunteer organizations to provide the necessary inputs to design the curriculum. The language teachers participated largely by contributing to various training sections. Topics of training were: (Also see Appendix No. 1.)

1) "Disposable Language: Practice for Participants" to provide a shared language learning experience and a starting point for discussions on questions of what is language, what is language learning, what is adequate pedagogy for foreign language learning, what are the requirements and goals for foreign language proficiency in volunteer service organizations.

2) "Assumptions and Hypotheses on Effective Language Learning": Participants drafted assumptions on the basis of earlier language learning experiences for the consideration of methods, preparation for, and programming and management of language training programs for volunteer service organizations. Dr. Earl Stevick discussed significant hypotheses on effective language learning as related to the assumptions of the participants.

3) "Bottlenecks in Language Training for Volunteer Service Organizations": Participants described the problems in programming and managing effective language training in their respective volunteer organizations.

4) "Language Teaching Methodologies": Demonstration and discussion of methodologies currently used in oral language training; audio-lingual (dialogues, pattern drills), audio-visual (St. Cloud), Programmed Self-Instruction (U.S.A., Switzerland), Microwave (U.S.A.), Situationally Reinforced Instruction (U.S.A.).

5) "Immersion Language Training Principles and Techniques and Integration of Language Training into a Cross-Cultural Context": Presentation and discussions on the development of a training format in which all activity is carried out in the target language; incorporating cross-cultural training principles, adapting existing methods to the immersion environment, and integrating other training components with language training.

6) "Work with the Disposable Language": Practical participation in learning a foreign language; an opportunity to test whatever hypotheses may have grown out of the first week, providing a basis for discussion of practical language training problems.

7) "In-country Language Training and the Development of Host-Country Resources": Experiences in pre-service training partially or totally in-country: successes, problems, failures, potential; the need for the development of indigenous language training resources and the possibilities for their development, etc.

8) "Continued Language Study on the Job": Problems and possibilities for continued language study once the volunteer arrives at his place of assignment; what possibilities are there for successful language training in the field; how can the volunteer work effectively with unskilled language tutors; what kinds of language programs are available?

9) "Materials and Resources": Language training materials were available, and were exhibited and demonstrated. Questions considered included how to deal with the problem of adapting American materials; how to

prepare materials for specific training programs; use of audio-visual aids; and possibilities for international cooperation in material development.

10) "Testing and Measurement": Discussion of the need for measurement of language learning aptitude, achievement in training, and language speaking proficiency. What tests are available? What are the problems of the Modern Language Aptitude Test? What are the possibilities and limitations of the FSI oral proficiency testing and rating system?

11) "Language Teacher Training": Teacher training formats for volunteer service organizations: how this differs from other training programs; introduction of new techniques in brief training sessions; preparation for training volunteers in contrast to students; preparation for integrating language training into the total volunteer training program, etc.

12) "Planning, Programming, and Management of Language Training": The preparations for language training programs: organizational flowchart; teacher hiring, teacher training, materials, development of instructional program, class scheduling, testing, preparation and planning for change during training program.

13) "International Cooperation in Language Training for Volunteer Service Organizations": Discussions of the possibilities, problems, and needs for international cooperation in information on language training, pedagogical developments, in-country language training, pre-service and on the job training; materials and expertise; pooling of resources, etc.

The major training topics are described in Chapter 4 and the actual training program is described in Appendix 1.

2.3 Materials

2.3.1 Informational preparation materials were distributed to participants prior to the workshop in order to provide a common basis for the two week teacher training and to stimulate interest in certain problem areas. The following material was provided:

a) Summary of John Carroll's "A Parametric Study of Language Training in the Peace Corps", June, 1968.

b) Diagram of Export Volunteer Service Training Programs, ISVS, June, 1969.

c) Developing Materials for Language Learning, Dr. Earl Stevick, FSI. "Working Assumptions and the Modular Approach": "Microwave", "Microtexts", the "Micro-Kor Plan", the "Flexible Frame" and "Routine Manipulation" (See Appendix)

d) "A Comparison of Language Achievement for Low Aptitude Trainees in Summer and Fall Agricultural Programs, 1967",
J. Markessinis,
U. S. Peace Corps.

e) "A Report to the Bureau of the Budget on Increased Language Training Requirements",
J. Francis,
U. S. Peace Corps,
February, 1969.

f) "In-Country Language Training",
J. Markessinis,
U. S. Peace Corps,
May, 1969.

g) "A Philosppphy of Language Teaching",
J. Rassias,
Dartmouth, 1968.

h) "Memorandum on High Intensive Language Training"
by Raymond E. Clark,
Experiment for International Living,
Brattleboro, Vermont, U.S.A.

2.3.2 During the teacher training workshop relevant language texts and materials were provided by various language training institutes, volunteer service organizations and commercial publishing companies, and were made available to interested participants. A list of the materials is contained in Appendix 4.

3. MAJOR CONCEPTS IN LANGUAGE TRAINING

3.1 Language Teaching Concepts and Methodologies

The methodologies and language training concepts demonstrated and discussed during the workshop represented the full range of modern practice, including multi-media systems and programmed self-instruction. In general, the trend was away from classical audio-lingual instruction and toward teaching which is clearly job-oriented.

Dr. Stevick was invited to present his principles of language teaching and the "Microwave" and related materials and language training approaches.

3.1.1 Stevick's Statement on Effective Language Training for Volunteer Service:

Stevick believes that the goal of a language training program is not merely that a volunteer shall know the language, but that he shall use it; and not merely that he shall use what he knows, but that he shall continue learning for himself whatever else he needs. Language is normally used by people not just for practice, but for communication, cooperation, and conflict. Methods and materials should therefore allow for conflict, cooperation and communication, as well as for practice. Language training is one aspect of training in interpersonal relations.

He began his presentation by stating five assumptions which are based on his experience in language teaching, and which agree with the principles stated above:

1) Usability. 'People learn features of a language best if they use those features in communication immediately, instead of just mimicking, manipulating and memorizing forms.'

2) Organization. 'On the elementary level, there must be order in the introduction of new items, and systematic drill on alien mechanical features, and some way of organizing classroom procedures.'

3) Responsiveness. 'Individuals, but also groups, vary widely in the content and methods that are appropriate for them. Some of these differences can be predicted in advance and some cannot. A language training program should be able to respond to these differences as they become evident.'

4) Responsibility. 'Other things being equal, the program will be more effective if the students and the instructors feel that they have some control over both content and procedure.'

5) Pluralism. 'No one format, and no one system however ingenious, can be sufficient for any one student or group of students. Procedures and systems and approaches supplement one another more than they supersede one another.'

In the light of these principles and these assumptions, the usual published course has serious weaknesses. It is likely to be poor in 'responsiveness', it often fails to provide much user 'responsibility', and it is seldom directly 'usable.' Its one strength (unless it is poorly constructed even by its own standards) is in organization, and superior organization alone will not produce superior results.

Stevick therefore urged that materials for volunteer training be prepared in the form of comparatively small modules, which can be combined in a number of ways according to the needs and the preferences of individual programs. Within the modules each lesson, unit or frame should itself indicate where and in what ways it may be modified by users to fit local needs. The materials-writing team should try to produce, not an inflexible cage, but a flexible frame within which the users can and must exercise their own initiative and carry definite responsibility.

It was objected that drawing on an array of modules and combining them into a successful course places heavy demands on the ingenuity and judgment of the director of language training and his staff. Stevick conceded this, but pointed out that the same is true if one is to teach successfully from a published course.

Stevick has embodied these ideas in a number of formats, some of which he demonstrated in the workshop. Each begins with a small and definite sample of the language, treats it according to some clearly stated procedure, and leads the students to increasingly responsible and communicative use of the new material within half an hour. In 'micro-wave', the basic material is a potentially useful utterance (often a question) and from four to eight potentially useful answers or other rejoinders. In a 'microtext', the basic material is a brief (about 30 sec.) statement by the instructor on some topic of interest to the students.

The 'Micro-Kor Plan', which arose out of his recent visits with Peace Corps language trainers in Micronesia and Korea, is a larger-scale elaboration of the same approach. In it, every day's schedule includes some task which must be accomplished with a speaker of the language who is not familiar with what has been taught in class. The materials writer and the classroom teacher focus their efforts on preparing the student to succeed in these encounters with the 'contact person'.

In one extended problem, Stevick presented the participants with 17 sheets of paper, each of which contained one microwave, or drill, or note, or set of short dialogues, or other material aimed at preparing students to accomplish the 'task' of talking about what they wanted to eat or drink at a coffee or tea break. The participants were asked to place these sheets in the order in which they thought they could best use them. Differences and similarities among solutions to this problem provided a basis for discussion.

3.1.2 Audio-Lingual, Audio-Visual and Multi-Media Language Methodologies

a) Audio-Lingual Demonstration
(Mr. Lennart Öhnell)

Mr. Öhnell gave a Swedish lesson to the participants to demonstrate the audio-lingual method of language teaching. He illustrated the use of short dialogues followed by intensive pattern drills using various types of substitution and other types of drills characteristic of the A-L method in which new forms to be learned are manipulated in previously learned frames.

Later, Mr. Öhnell demonstrated his "vocabulary in action" material used to learn the parts of an automobile and their function by the use of sequenced illustrations and recorded taped texts.

b) Audio-Visual Demonstration
(Mr. Hans Björkman)

Mr. Björkman introduced and demonstrated the St. Cloud Method of Language Instruction (Voix et Images de France, 1er degre).

Mr. Björkman also told how he had adapted this method to meet the needs of Swedish fishermen going to Tunisia: listing situations most useful to the fishermen, drawing pictures for new slides, using Voix et Images structure, but refocusing the subject matter to Tunisia; also relating the slides and tapes to subjects the fishermen would be able to use when they arrived in Tunisia.

In his presentation Mr. Björkman raised the following questions:

- How do you determine what the essential vocabulary and structures are when planning your language courses?

- Are there any practical (and cheap!) ways in which this could be improved?

- How do you carry out pre-laboratory lessons if you use an audio-visual course?

- Are there any practical (and cheap!) ways in which this could be improved?

A description distributed by Mr. Björkman is included in Appendix 5.

Discussion

The criticism of the basic St. Cloud audio-visual method was that the structure of the system was too fixed and that the teacher could not participate during the film strips.

However, it was felt that Mr. Björkman's kind of adaptation could be made relevant to African languages. One participant felt that the method was situationally oriented and realistic, but not a real situation. It was suggested that the situation was an "external" experience rather than an "internal" experience.

c) Use of Multi-Media in a New Swedish
Audio-Lingual Program
(Mr. Ake Andersson
Consultant to the Swedish National Board of Education)

Mr. Ake Andersson gave a demonstration of the use of multi-media in an experimental intensive language training course. This method included introducing the language to the students through T.V. films, following up with slides, tapes, audio-active equipment and the laboratory.

Mr. Andersson has used this method in a 30-45 day program for new immigrants at Alvesta, Sweden, financed by the National Board of Manpower: classes consisted of 12-20 students, with Swedish being the only language allowed. Due to the students' low educational level, emphasis was placed primarily on pictures. Aims of the program were to enable the students to understand oral Swedish, speak simple Swedish, read a simple text, and achieve a writing level adequate enough to fill in forms.

The target of this program had been to experiment with multi-media, with an eye to its possible future use for intensive language courses in the school system.

d) Spontaneous Conversation Tapes
(Mrs. Carol Knudsen
Head Teacher - English Section
International Summer School, Oslo, Norway)

Mrs. Knudsen has had created a series of tapes in a question-and-answer format dealing with East African cultural topics, and accompanied by relevant written material (See Appendix 4.2.2.). The answers were given by an East African girl, thus exposing students to the sound of an East African accent in English. The tapes were for intermediate or advanced students, used once or twice a week. In presenting her material, Mrs. Knudsen asked the following questions:

- How should this type of material be used?
- How should it be improved?
- How can we provide self-study materials on an intermediate level with a situation content relevant for our students?
  a) What is available?
  b) What is it possible for us to make?
- What should be our guidelines in:
  a) Preparing new material
  b) Attempting to adapt material

Discussion

In discussion of the use of impromptu tape recordings, it was suggested that such recordings can have a freshness and a kind of authenticity which is almost impossible in materials that are read from a script. On the other hand, care must be taken lest some of the content be embarrassing to potential listeners, or even to the source himself. Such materials may be too long and/or too complex for any but advanced classes. Extra care must be exercised in the mechanical aspects of making such recordings.

e) Programmed Self-Instruction
Example: Programmatic Spanish
Foreign Service Institute, Department of State
(Dr. Earl Stevick)

In this program the purpose of the teacher is to elicit the use of the language. Beginners will have little to discuss in the target and will therefore spend less time with the teacher than the advanced student. The aims of programmatic Spanish are to shape the student's pronunciation, to familiarize him with the structure of the language, as well as to give him some experience with a live speaker. In this method the student uses the text and tape recorder on his own and then spends up to 30 minutes to 2 hours daily with a live instructor, depending at which point the student is in the course.

However, one of the problems with any self-instructional language materials is that they are very costly and time consuming to develop. Therefore, practically speaking, they can be prepared only for major languages.

f) Situationally Reinforced Instruction (See Appendix 6)
(Mr. Eugene Hall - Institute of Modern Languages)

'Situational Reinforcement' (SR) as a system of language instruction dates from early 1967. It arose out of a number of weaknesses which Hall found in the use of 'pattern practice' and 'the audio-lingual method' (ALM):

1. In ALM, students often failed to retain the 'patterns' that they had 'practiced'.

2. Because so much of the practice was out of context, students did not carry what they learned into use outside of class.

3. Monotony led to a drop in student interest.

4. Most courses present structures in some sequence that is more influenced by considerations of linguistic analysis than by usefulness for practical communication.

5. There are problems of how much drill to give each pattern.

6. Courses often lump together sentences with identical surface structures but different deep structures.

7. Forms in the target language are related first of all to forms in the native language, rather than to experience.

In SR, structure is presented 'situationally'. A 'situation', in this sense, is one in which the student can participate as himself. Dialogues and role playing are therefore ruled out. Structures are presented in clusters, rather than individually, so that they may be used in communicative exchanges that are long enough to be viable. The time between first presentation and first communicative use is very short. Especially in the early stages, there is much motor activity. The teacher, in addition to serving as model and drill master, must create and take advantage of situations in which the students can use what they have learned. Systematic drills are rejected in favor of continuous review, and frequent opportunities to generate new combinations of old material.

Situational Reinforcement has been demonstrated in two programs. One, in Jedda, Saudi Arabia, has a technical content. The other, for foreign students attending universities in Washington, D. C., is culturally oriented.

3.2 Bottlenecks in Language Training for Volunteer Organizations
(Dr. John Butler, Chairman)

The workshop divided into two groups to name the bottlenecks in language training that exist within their respective organizations. When the group reunited it constructed the following list of bottlenecks, dividing them into pedagogical or administrational problems:

3.2.1 Pedagogical

a) Teachers

Recruitment of teachers
Varying criteria for qualities of teachers
Lack of time or funds for training teachers
Recruitment of teachers for critical languages
Non-native speaking teachers

b) Materials

Avability of adequate language training materials
Material development, especially for critical languages
Vocationally oriented material usually geared to the country of origin rather than to the host country

c) Students

Low language learning ability
Limited educational background of some volunteers
Limited linguistic background
Low motivation
Difficulty of heterogeneous groups: mixed abilities, levels of education, English language proficiency, different vocations, different target profiles, heterogeneous target learning goals in same class.

d) Problems related to training environment: multi-lingual or bi-lingual environment, training site, classroom facilities, etc.
Cultural shock in in-country training.

e) Problems related to programming of training:

Lack of adequate time for planning
Lack of systematization of training coordination
Lack of clarity of target goals
Lack of control of language training by the central language office
Lack of evaluation and implementation of evaluation in programs
Interruption of language training by other activities
Proportion of various learning activities in program.

3.2.2 Administrative

Limited hours of language training
Insufficient funds for language training

Limited influence of the teachers on the administration
Lack of appreciation of the teacher's work.

3.2.3 Discussion

Two evenings were devoted to discussion of bottlenecks in an attempt to find solutions. The two topics discussed were Students and Teachers.

a) Low Language Aptitude Students

The group discussed the cost, in both time and money, of training low-aptitude students, and also considered the problem of mixing such students with those of greater ability in language learning.

Solutions

The group generally agreed that the volunteer organization should accept the low-language aptitude students and put the responsibility on the teacher for finding the methods and resources to train them. The organization should give these students the best teachers and extend the course if necessary or limit the program to the volunteers' specific purposes.

b) Heterogeneous Classes and Target Profiles

The group discussed the problem of making teaching relevant to students with different vocations and different language abilities.

Solutions

The group generally agreed that mixing students of different vocational interests could be positive. However, the need for a target profile was expressed in order to determine the extent of language proficiency the student needs in the field. SIDA has studied a set of jobs and is about to agree on a set of profiles which may be "target" (i.e., desirable) or minimum profiles.

c) Low Motivation of Students

The group distinguished between volunteers with basic low motivation - who enter training to postpone military service or to avoid difficult family situations, etc. - and volunteers who lack motivation due to poor language training or lack of knowledge of their final assignment or destination.

Solutions

These problems were felt to be administrative. They should be handled by better means of recruitment and more knowledge from host countries concerning where and when volunteers are needed.

d) Recruitment of Teachers

Solutions

The emphasis of the discussion was on international cooperation. It was suggested that there were many organizations (including representatives of organizations present) which could send students to Europe to help teach English to European volunteer organizations.

The following contacts were given:

- The Experiment in International Living
  Mr. Thomas Todd

- Dartmouth College
  Dr. John Rassias

- Peace Corps Language Director
  Mr. John Francis

- Friends World College, Long Island, New York.

It was suggested that ISVS could assist by coordinating such programs. At present, however, ISVS was limited by staff and budget restrictions. It was generally felt that the recruitment of teachers could be solved by those present: the subject should be discussed privately and determined later in the workshop.

e) Recruitment of Teachers for Critical Languages

The discussion of the problem of recruiting native speakers focused on the availability of such speakers as well as on the difficulties of obtaining funds to cover the expenses of travel fare, salary, etc.

Solutions

It was generally decided that the problem was to find "warm bodies" or "referents" who speak the critical language; the teacher training could take place later. It was suggested that the Peace Corps directors in target countries should be contacted. It was also suggested that Dr. Rassias could help since he would be going to West Africa to train native teachers this summer.

f) Non-Native Speaking Teachers

The group discussed what could be done if a "warm body" could not be found. SIDA expressed the desire to have one non-native speaking teacher.

But DED had a particular problem as their teaching staff consisted mainly of teachers from their own country who also had to play the role of administrators; thus, there was a tendency for both teachers and students to speak their native German outside the classroom.

Solutions

One suggestion was that there should be strong administrative support for the rule that all staff must be required to speak only the target language in and out of the classroom, perhaps under threat of dismissal if necessary.

The problems of materials and the administrational bottlenecks were not discussed. The list of bottlenecks was too extensive; therefore, they were reselected and redefined as the "real needs" of the participants.

3.3 Teacher Training - Dr. Earl Stevick, Dr. John Rassias

The language coordinator must have the full professional responsibility for the language program and the professional ability to direct it. The language coordinator should give positive direction to the program; the materials should be changed or adapted if necessary. There are countless teaching methodologies, but only a limited number of teaching techniques should be used.

3.3.1 Dr. John Rassias discussed his philosophy of and techniques for effective language teaching in an intensive audio-lingual program based on his experience of four years of directing language training for Peace Corps at Dartmouth College, New Hampshire.

Dr. Rassias described the purpose of language in volunteer service programs as "communication at the level of true understanding, of soul to soul talk, of sensitivity at its most heightened degree...full cognizance of the fact that we are alive and that we share this globe with other people."

He believes that the quality of teaching depends on the sensitivity, love, involvement and suppleness of the teacher. The teacher should always keep the class alive and exciting. The teacher must rid himself of inhibitions and lose himself in the classroom. The essential characteristic for both teacher and student is mental as well as physical suppleness. The teacher must be totally committed to the program, the students, and the teaching techniques. He must be able to move and adjust to the needs of the program and the student and not let the class suffer because he cannot meet the varying requirements day by day of a dynamic language class. Dr. Rassias' many techniques to achieve this excitement in the classroom are outlined in his booklet "A Philosophy of Language Teaching". The booklet was sent to all participants prior to the Workshop.*

3.3.2 Demonstration

Dr. Rassias demonstrated his teaching methods with participants selected from the Workshop. The language of the lesson was Greek. The emphasis was on alertness, ability to respond quickly, to enunciate loudly and correctly and to participate fully in the class activity. He illustrated the importance of the full involvement of the teacher and how to achieve the interest and full participation of the students. Though language training methodologies vary, all should stress the human aspects of teaching which are too often forgotten, Dr. Rassias noted, but are the very essence of teaching and learning.

3.3.3 Format for Training Language Instructors for Volunteer Service Organizations

Dr. Rassias outlined a format for a one-week program to train language teachers for volunteer service organizations: the program should be well defined to the instructors; a presentation of the model methodology to be employed by the entire staff should be given and discussed; this lesson should be given in a language foreign to the staff; instructors should be told all that will be expected of them - number of teaching hours, amount of outside activities, etc.; those who are not willing to carry out the responsibilities should be eliminated; all materials and texts should be discussed, as should the role of the language laboratory; instructors should make individual teaching demonstrations, and deliver self-criticisms; then, the director should lead the group in criticism of each individual demonstration. A more detailed description of Dr. Rassias' teacher training program can be found in his booklet: "A Philosophy of Language Teaching".

Dr. Rassias also believes in the importance of the rotation of teachers. Rotation exposes the student to various accents and intonations. The teacher operates under new stimuli and the student is made more aware of his various weaknesses.

Discussion

Many organizations (such as DED) felt that they did not have time for teacher training because their volunteer training programs allowed only one week between courses. It was suggested that the teachers could meet one day a week. SIDA wondered how one could keep communications between teachers from breaking down. Dr. Rassias suggested involving the teachers in evening cultural activities as an aid in avoiding the formation of cliques.

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* Additional copies of "A Philosophy of Language Teaching" may be obtained from Dr. Rassias, Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.

3.3.4 SIDA Six-Day Training Workshop

Mr. Gordon Evans presented the six-day teacher training workshop, held at the SIDA language training center in Vasteros. An outline of the program is included in Appendix 8.

3.4 IN-COUNTRY TRAINING

Dr. John Rassias
Dr. Earl Stevick

Dr. Rassias explained the basic problems of in-country language training by referring to an experiment of Dartmouth College, New Hampshire, U.S.A in Bourges, France.

Although the pilot project was arranged for college sophomores, and not for volunteers, the program, nonetheless, has relevance to in-country language teaching.

The students were beginners, intermediates, and advanced. They studied five hours a day in class. Each student lived with a French family; thus, classroom instruction was reinforced by the home situation. Problems arose in the family situations because conversation was difficult. Students were told to ask the families autobiographical questions, and to establish a real dialogue. The students were encouraged to stay in their homes or neighborhoods, and to avoid their fellow students.

Topics such as the study of contemporary Bourges were introduced in the classroom, leading to further discussion concerning the province, and then to France itself. Local movies and chansonniers were seen and discussed. Local people - priests, farmers, concierges - gave talks. Subjects in the local newspaper were also covered: for example, a discussion of French individualism was triggered by the fact that there were always two different opinions expressed on the editorial page.

The program lasted from March through June, and was generally considered successful.

3.4.1 In-Country Training - The Ivory Coast

Dr. Rassias presented an in-country Peace Corps training program held in Ivory Coast in 1967.

In contrast to the Bourges program, in-country training of volunteers in a town, two hundred miles outside of Abidjan, presented tremendous difficulties. The basic problems were:

1. Coping with environmental factors
2. Cultural shock which diminished trainee's morals
3. Lack of preparation before arrival
4. Lack of clear understanding of what in-country training would be like.

Some of the volunteers had gone through training in Quebec at a Peace Corps training center, and had been given tasks to increase their self reliance. As they had had a long training period, they were ready for action. Others, however, had experienced only one summer of training. All volunteers know French, the minimum level being S-1+ . But they were on different levels of language proficiency. Those with higher language proficiency could concentrate more on the African language.

There was great difficulty in obtaining African teachers and in training them. In total, there were fifteen teachers coming from Ivory Coast, Gabon, Niger, and Togo - all with different backgrounds and of different ages.

The lack of proper living and studying quarters and the general affect of "culture shock" made the first part of the in-country program very difficult. For example, when they arrived in the country and found no mosquito netting, they were sure that they would get malaria. All fell "sick". Eventually, living arrangements got settled, classes and teachers organized. But the problems were enormous.

Discussion

The Peace Corps has not been generally successful with in-country language training. A paper: Support In-Country for Continued Language Study states:

a) It is difficult or impossible to get good language instructors to work with individual volunteers at their sites, or to organize linguistically effective workshops.

b) If a volunteer has received adequate instruction initially, field language programs probably offer no advantage over opportunities for language improvement by natural social interaction.

c) Therefore, the Peace Corps should direct its resources to improving pre-service language training to assure that the overwhelming majority of trainees attain at least the level of limited working proficiency (S-2).

However, DED stated that they had not had difficulties with their in-country training which had been done in Tunisia, Latin America, and Tanzania.

3.4.2 Continued Study on the Job

In-country language training is unpredictable and difficult. Therefore, it is important to train the volunteer to be self-sufficient, as well as to teach him a language that he can control to some extent and later develop on his own.

Suggested procedures to equip volunteers for the field:

a) There should be a relationship between the volunteer's training and his life in the host country.

b) There should be daily training where something really happens that would happen in the host country (microtasks).

c) There should be a systematic study of the language.

d) The volunteer should be given more confidence so that he can take care of himself physically in the host country.

e) The volunteer should have developed enough self-sufficiency so that he can continue language study on his own.

What makes a good volunteer eventually is not proficiency in the language, but the ability to make step-by-step progress in the language as he lives in the country.

3.5 TESTING

- Mr. Sven-Erik Henrikson
- Mr. Allan Kulakow

Language, aptitude and proficiency testing proved to be a crucial question to language teachers in volunteer organizations. Most organizations did not feel that they had adequate testing methods.

Mr. Henrikson, a psychologist from the Swedish Board of Education, discussed some of the problems of testing. He stressed the importance of knowing the objectives in testing: should the test be prognostic or diagnostic; should the test measure ability or proficiency? Ability does not alone determine performance because there are many variables. Henrikson's main concern was that there should be a connection between teaching and testing.

Testing should be used to improve teaching. Most teachers stop after the final testing of a student, but actually, the teacher should examine the test findings and revise his method of instruction accordingly.

3.5.1 Mr. Henrikson and Mr. Kulakow discussed the importance of language aptitude testing and particularly the Modern Language Aptitude Test, which is given to all Peace Corps applicants. The MLAT is presently available only in English and German, and the reliability of the German form is questionable.

Mr. Henrikson offered to work with SIDA in the development of a Swedish version if desired.

3.5.2 Mr. Kulakow then presented and discussed the Oral Proficiency Testing and rating system developed by the Foreign Service Institute, and used regularly by the U. S. Peace Corps. The test measures actual spoken proficiencies, that is, what the student can do with the language. The test is conducted in the form of an oral interview, usually lasting from 15 to 30 minutes, and administered by a native speaker of the language and a testing specialist trained in the FSI system and having some knowledge of the target language. The ratings are as follows:

ELEMENTARY PROFICIENCY

S-1	Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements.
S-1+	Exceeds S-1 primarily in vocabulary and thus able to meet more complex travel and courtesy requirements.

LIMITED WORKING PROFICIENCY

S-2	Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements with confidence but not with facility.
S-2+	Exceeds S-2 primarily in fluency and in either grammar or vocabulary.

MINIMUM PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

S-3	Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to satisfy all normal social and work requirements and handle professional discussions within a special field.
S-3+	Exceeds an S-3 primarily in vocabulary and in fluency or grammar.

FULL PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

S-4 Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs. Can handle informal interpreting from and into the language.

S-4+ Should be considered as just short of an S-5.

NATIVE OR BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY

S-5 Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.

Peace Corps volunteers are tested:

a) Upon arrival at training if they offer any proficiency in the target language.

b) At the mid-point of training (optional).

c) At the end of training or at the end of stateside training and again at the end of in-country training. After 300 hours of language training, a score of S-2 is desirable.

d) At the end of 3-6 months service.

e) At the end of 2 years' service overseas.

Tests should always be given by someone other than the teacher. To have two different testers who agree on the same measurement would give the test more reliability. (See also Appendix 9.)

Demonstrations of the testing process were given using two Swedish girls and two workshop participants.

Discussion

There are many problems concerning testing. The testors must be trained to give ratings attuned to those at the FSI, as well as in the techniques of oral interview testing.

Another problem mentioned in the discussion by participants was that it is usually the administrator who decides if the volunteer is ready to be sent to the field, and often this administrator has little or no comprehension of language proficiency ratings. Also, many organizations do not have standardized testing procedures.

4. WORKING GROUPS

In the second week, the participants split into two working groups to focus on the language training programming and planning. Each group spent most of the first three days of the week seeking a solution for a problem that had been devised by the training team.

4.1 Working Group I

- Dr. Earl Stevick, Moderator

Problem: You will have a group of 14 Volunteers for Agriculture in Tanzania. They will have 160 hours for language instruction. They have had 2-4 years of English already, and are S-1 in general English. There is one native speaker available, and one non-native teacher. Language laboratory facilities are available. Your goal is to produce "good, strong S-2" with emphasis on job-oriented vocabulary.

The working group decided to assume that this program would take place at the Language Training Centre of the DED, 4 hours per day, 5 days a week for eight weeks. Students who reached the desired proficiency in English before the end of the program would be given an opportunity to study Swahili, but the working group confined its attention to the English-teaching phase.

The program at which the working group arrived was divided into three main sections:

I. A "Flexible Frame" (Appendix 10.1), for introducing immediately needed vocabulary and revision of basic patterns of questions and statements.

II. General English Instruction: dialogues, "microwaves" (Appendix 10.2), and drills.

III. Job-oriented Instruction: "microwaves", "microtexts" (Appendix 10.3), and "action chains".

The concrete materials* prepared by this group were related principally to the second of these three sections. At the end of these materials, the student will be given an opportunity to perform the "task" of giving and receiving real street and road directions. Each part of Section II is similarly aimed at helping the student to prepare himself for accomplishing some small and specific "task".

Task: Be able to give and receive directions.

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*) For materials also presented at the Workshop, see: Appendix 10.4 "Working Assumptions and the Modular Approach", and Appendix 10.5 "Routine Manipulations".

Dialogue I

A. I'm looking for the training center.
B. Well, I'm going there now, I'll show you.
A. Are you a volunteer?
B. Yes, I am.

Dialogue II

A. Where is the agricultural class this morning?
B. They are in the repair shop.
C. Can I get there on foot?
D. Yes, you can. It's only two minutes from here. Go through the park. You'll see it on your left.

Microwave I

I'm looking for the training center.

I'm going there now
It's over there
I'm sorry I don't know
It's across the street
It's near the park
It's on your left

Microwave II

Where is the agricultural class now?

It is in the repair shop
They are in their English class
They are in the field
They are in room 10

Microwave III

Can I get there on foot?

Yes, you can, it's only two minutes from here.
No, it's too far
Yes, but it's a twenty minutes walk
Yes, it's near the repair shop

Can I get there by car?

Yes, it's a ten minutes drive
Yes, but the road is very bad
No, it's not on the road

Routine Manipulation (Example)

Command Forms -
Go through the park
Turn left (right)
Cross the street
Go straight ahead
Follow the street

Transformation Drill

Go through the park	You are going through the park
Turn left	You are turning left
Turn right	You are turning right
Cross the street	You are crossing the street

Topics for other Lessons

1. Directions	Task: Ask and give directions
2. Transportation	Task: How to get to Birstein and back Buying a train ticket Taking a taxi to and from the station
3. Bank	Task: Open an account Withdraw and deposit money Exchange currency
4. Post Office	Task: Send a letter to Tanzania Send a parcel to Tanzania
5. Purchase	Task: Buy some toilet articles, etc.
6. Food	
7. Telephone	
8. Time	Task: Throughout the whole course
9. Party	
10. Weather	
11. Customs	

Each group was also asked to show how it would adapt existing published materials to fit its problem. This group chose "Conversation B" from Page 84 of English Conversation Practice, by Grant Taylor. The original conversation was:

I'd like to mail this package
How do you want to send it?
By regular mail
That'll be eighty-nine cents

The adaptation was:

I want to send this letter to East Africa
How do you want to send it?
By air mail
That'll be ninety pfennings

Drills

I. I want to send this letter to East Africa

telegram
parcel
book
postcard
aerogramme
registered letter

II. I want to send it by air mail

by surface mail
by registered mail
by insured mail
special delivery

III. I want to send this letter by air mail

surface mail
parcel
special delivery
book
insured mail
registered letter
registered mail
letter

The last part of the course is to be oriented towards the work of the volunteer and his situation in the new culture.

Both aspects of this section will be approached through microwaves, microtexts and action chain.

An example of the types of tasks with which the volunteer will be concerned during the job oriented phase follows.

Tasks - Students are expected to actually perform these tasks using English language.

Using single bladed plough with an ox

Welding	Operating torch Actual welding Judging the work
Harvesting	Gathering Transporting Storing etc.

East African contact person will be brought in to discuss the tasks.

4.2 Working Group II

Eugene Hall, Moderator

Problem: You will have a group of six volunteer mechanics for Zambia. They will have 300 hours of English. They have already studied English for two years, and are S-0+ to S-1. One native speaker is available.

Group II met together to plan the overall program and then the members worked individually on the parts for which they were responsible.

A report of Working Group II is enclosed in Appendix 11 .

4.3 International Cooperation in Language Training

The discussion on international cooperation was brief. The essential point was the desire of the participants to know of good programs that might be developed in the future by other groups.

4.3.1 The following suggestions for sources of information were made:

a) iSVS
b) UNESCO
c) ERIC (Educational Resource Information Center), U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.
   - published quaterly journal
   - has unpublished material that can be sent out on microfilm
d) The Linguistic Newsletter of the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.
e) Requests for testing or language training information can be sent directly to John Francis, Peace Corps Language Director, or he may be contacted through iSVS.

4.3.2 Areas of possible international cooperation considered were as follows:

a) In-country training:

  - joint training programs
  - use of P.C. trained host country teachers for the volunteer service organizations
  - P.C. directors should be contacted

b) In-country testing:
  - joint volunteer service organization testing programs using P.C. trained testors
  - P.C. directors should be contacted

c) Development of language training materials

d) Information on all matters relevant to language training for volunteer service organizations should be provided to all members by iSVS. The urgency of this coordination was stressed by all participants

e) Exchange of teachers or the routing of host-country teachers brought to the U.S. for P.C. training programs to assist European volunteer service organizations' training programs afterwards

f) Regular meetings of language training directors and teachers of volunteer service organizations

It was also suggested that communications be continued between the workshop participants in order to exchange information.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

Language teachers from six member-countries of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service met in the Language Teachers' Training Workshop in Furudal, Sweden, from June 15 to June 28, 1969. The countries represented were: Germany, Holland, Israel, Norway, Sweden and the United States. The following Recommendations support and supplement the Furudal Statement which was the outcome of the work and discussion of the representatives:

> "Recognizing the importance of language instruction for the effective completion of the volunteers' tasks in the host country, the participants made the following recommendations:
>
> 1. Program.
>
>   a) A target-profile* for each volunteer's task must be established and enough time allotted in the training programs for the attainment of this goal.
>
>   * target-profile: an indication of the levels of proficiency in each of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) which is necessary for the successful completion of the volunteers' tasks. The target-profile will vary according to the language requirements for each job.

b) All facets of the training program must be integrated, with emphasis on technical training and area studies in the target language.

2. Staffing and Training.

a) The necessity for appointing a director of language training must be recognized. This individual must have the responsibility for the selection of teachers, teacher training, language program scheduling and classroom supervision.

b) Time spent on material preparation and teacher training before the course is of utmost importance. Teachers must be allowed a reasonable amount of time for preparation, and regularly scheduled teacher training sessions must be held.

c) Teachers should be employed for a period which includes teacher training, planning time and post-program evaluation sessions.

3. International Cooperation

a) ISVS should be the active language, information and training consultancy for all member organizations.

b) ISVS should encourage the standardization of language testing among the member organizations.

c) ISVS should aid organizations in establishing realistic minimum language requirements for the various roles which volunteers fulfill.

d) ISVS should encourage study visits between member organizations and promote more international workshops on specific problem areas in language teaching.

e) Future language workshops should include participants from the developing countries.

APPENDICES

1. Schedule of Training Program
2. List of Participants
3. Message to Participants by the Secretary General of iSVS
4. List of Language Training Materials and Technical Papers presented at the Workshop
5. Summary: St. Cloud Method
6. Situationally Re-inforced Instruction
7. High Intensive Language Training
8. Teachers' Training Format
9. Language Proficiency Testing
10. Fascicles on Developing Materials for Language Learning (see also Working Group I - 4.1):
    - 10.1 The 'Flexible Frame'
    - 10.2 'Microwave'
    - 10.3 'Microtexts'
    - 10.4 Working Assumptions and the 'Modular Approach'
    - 10.5 'Routine Manipulations'
11. Report of Working Group II

APPENDIX 1

Schedule of Training Program

Saturday, June 14:	Arrival	
	6:00 p.m.	Welcome Dinner on the invitation of SIDA (Swedish International Development Authority)
Sunday, June 15:	8:30 a.m.	Departure for Lövudden, SIDA's Language Learning Center at Västeras
	11:30 a.m.	Introduction by Participants Why we are here? Discussion with Gordon Evans (Director Language Learning Center)
	12:30 p.m.	Lunch with the Teaching Staff of the Language Learning Center
	1:30 p.m.	Disposable Language I Dr. Earl Stevick
	5:00 p.m.	Dinner
	6:00 p.m.	Description of Participants' Organizations
Monday, June 16:	8:00 a.m.	Description of various learning activities at Västeras
	9:00 a.m.	Class Visits
	10:00 a.m.	Class Visits
	11:00 a.m.	Press Conference
	12:00 noon	Lunch
	1:00 p.m.	Discussion of Classes Observed
	3:00 p.m.	Departure for Furudal Picnic en route
	8:30 p.m.	Arrive Furudal Supper

Tuesday, June 17:	8:00 a.m.	Hypotheses on effective Language Training Dr. Earl Stevick
	12:00 noon	Lunch
	2:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Working groups: Bottlenecks in language training in volunteer service organizations
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	5:00 p.m. 6:00 p.m.	Dinner
	6:00 p.m. 9:00 p.m.	Reports from Groups Chairman: Dr. John Butler
Wednesday, June 18:	8:00 a.m. 10:00 a.m.	Audio-visual techniques St. Cloud Method Mr. Hans Björkman, Head of Personnel Training Section SIDA
	10:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Audio-lingual techniques New Swedish audio-lingual program Mr. Ake Andersson
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	1:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	5:00 p.m. 6:00 p.m.	Demonstration of Vocabulary in Action Mr. Lennart Öhnell
	6:00 p.m. 7:00 p.m.	Dinner
	8:00 p.m.	Audio-lingual-Swedish lesson - Mr. Lennart Öhnell demonstration

Thursday, June 19:	8:00 a.m. 10:00 a.m.	Spontaneous Conversation Tapes Demonstration and discussion Mrs. Carol Knudson, Head Teacher English Section of the International Summer Schoo, Oslo, Norway
	10:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Programmed self-instruction Dr. Earl Stevick
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	2:00 p.m.	Testing and Measurement Mr. Sven-Erik Henrikson Swedish Board of Education
	6:00 p.m. 7:00 p.m.	Dinner
	7:00 p.m. 9:00 p.m.	Continued Discussion on Bottlenecks Chairman: Dr. John Butler
		Excursion
Friday, June 20:	8:00 a.m. 10:00 a.m.	Situationally Reinforced Instruction Mr. Eugene Hall Institute of Modern Languages Washington, D. C.
	10:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Microwave Principle Dr. Earl Stevick
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	1:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	6:00 p.m. 7:00 p.m.	Dinner
Saturday, June 21:	8:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Disposable Language II Materials and Resources
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch

Saturday, June 21: (cont'd.)	1:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	5:00 p.m. 6:00 p.m.	Training and preparation of language teachers for teaching in volunteer service organizations' training programs Dr. John Rassias
	6:00 p.m. 7:00 p.m.	Dinner
	7:00 p.m.	Excursion - Midnight Summer's Eve
Sunday, June 22:	9:00 a.m.	Full day excursion
Monday, June 23:	8:00 a.m. 11:00 a.m.	Working groups
	11:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Working groups/Reports
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	1:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Preparation Hours
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	5:00 p.m. 6:30 p.m.	Working groups
	6:30 p.m. 7:30 p.m.	Dinner
	7:30 p.m. 9:00 p.m.	Dr. John Rassias
Tuesday, June 24:	8:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Working groups

Tuesday, June 24: cont'd	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	1:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	5:00 p.m. 6:30 p.m.	Working groups
	7:30 p.m. 9:00 p.m.	English 901 Mr. Richard Evans Collier Macmillan International
Wednesday, June 25:	8:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Working groups
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	1:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	5:00 p.m. 5:30 p.m.	Reports - Teaching Demonstrations by participants
	7:30 p.m. 9:00 p.m.	Planning, programming, and management of language training Dr. John Rassias Dr. Earl Stevick
Thursday, June 26:	8:00 a.m. 12:00 noon	Testing and Proficiency Mr. Allan Kulakow
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	1:00 p.m. 3:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
	3:00 p.m. 5:00 p.m.	Sports
	5:00 p.m. 6:30 p.m.	In-Country Training Continued Study Dr. John Rassias Dr. Earl Stevick

Thursday, June 26: (cont'd)	6:30 p.m. 7:30 p.m.	Dinner
	7:30 p.m. 9:00 p.m.	Brain Trust International Cooperation Mr. Allan Kulakow
Friday, June 27:	8:00 a.m.	Furudal Plan - Dr. Earl Stevick Mr. Lennart Öhnell
	12:00 noon	
		Resolutions - Mr. Thomas Todd Evaluations - Mr. Allan Kulakow Mr. Gordon Evans
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	5:00 p.m.	Farewell dinner
Saturday, June 28:	7:00 a.m.	Departure for Stockholm

APPENDIX 2

List of Participants

1.	Tress Aspeslagh	Netherlands	Royal Tropical Institute Mauritskade 65 Amsterdam 020-53 152
2.	Hans Bjorkman	Sweden	SIDA, Personnel Training Section 105 25 Stockholm 08/24 56 00/259
3.	John D. Butler	USA	Institute of Modern Languages 1666 Connecticut Avenue, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20009 265-8686
4.	Betsy Carns	iSVS	1424 16th Street, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20036
5.	Anje de By	Netherlands	Royal Tropical Institute Mauritskade 65 Amsterdam 020-53 152
6.	Gordon Evans	Sweden	The Language Learning Centre Lovuddenm, Vasteras 021/14 79 03
7.	Eugene Hall	USA	Institute of Modern Languages 1666 Connecticut Avenue, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20009 265-8686
8.	Carol Knudsen	Norway	International Summer School University of Oslo Box 10, Blindern, Oslo 46-68-00
9.	Allan Kulakow	iSVS	1424 16th Street, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20036

10.	Erika Meyer	Germany	German Volunteer Service 1 Berlin 19 Allemannenallee 6 0311/3025406
11.	Lennart Öhnell	Sweden	SIDA, Personnel Training Section 105 25 Stockholm 08/24 56 00/251
12.	Ruth Raeli	Israel	Ministry for Foreign Affairs Division for International Cooperation Jerusalem 54122
13.	John Rassias	USA	Dartmouth College Hanover, New Hampshire
14.	Brigitte Reinhardt	Germany	German Volunteer Service 648 Wachtersbach/Schloss 351
15.	Jennifer Stancliffe	Norway	International Summer School University of Oslo Box 10, Blindern, Oslo 46-68-00
16.	Earl Stevick	USA	Foreign Service Institute Department of State Washington, D. C. 20520 202 - 383-4840
17.	Hanna Stouten	Netherlands	Royal Tropical Institute Mauritskade 65 Amsterdam 020-53 152
18.	Tom Todd	USA	School for International Training Kipling Road Brattleboro, Vermont 05301 802- 254-6044

APPENDIX 3

Message to the Language Teachers' Training Workshop

by Dr. Michael U. R. von Schenck, Secretary General of iSVS

People working with people must understand people. Language is a vital element for understanding each other. Language training is thus an essential part in the preparation of volunteers for their work because language is a vital element for volunteers to communicate their skills and ideas.

Not too long ago languages were learned in years of study at school and it was almost impossible to learn any other than the more commonly spoken languages. The needs of volunteers have opened new dimensions in language training. Volunteer organizations have pioneered new methods of training which allow the students to learn a language within a few months.

The developments in intensive short term language teaching have been tremendous. What used to be a daring innovation five years ago, today is already a traditional method. Electronics and technology have contributed new tools in this field. It is the purpose of this workshop to show specialists the newest methods available.

The International Secretariat for Volunteer Service is proud to be able to render to volunteer organizations around the world its services to train volunteers so that they are more able to communicate their skills, experiences and ideas to people for developing a better world for all of us. Feelings can be transmitted without words, ideas and knowledge need language as life needs air.

I am happy that this workshop is taking place in Sweden - a country which is open to new approaches, thus making it very appropriate to meet in Furudal. We are all grateful for the cooperation of SIDA.

While you are specialists in language training, this workshop will also see you as experts in mutual communication. I wish you every success in developing yourselves even more in order to give to volunteers, as agents of development, an even better tool of communication by improving language training. Jag onskar er gott arbete.

APPENDIX 4

List of Language Training Materials and Technical Papers

The following language training materials were presented at the language teachers' workshop. Copies may be obtained by writing the original source:

1. Language Materials Developed by Language Training Institutes

1.1 Foreign Service Institute

a. Microwave and related materials and technical paper on: "Explanatory Comments on this Array of Language Modules for Study of the Swahili Language" by Dr. Earl Stevick.

b. French Basic Course*

c. Programmatic Spanish*

d. Amharic Basic Course*

e. Swahili Basic Course*

f. Hindu Microwave

g. Spanish Basic Course*

h. Lingala*

1.2 Experiment in International Living (EIL), Brattleboro, Vermont

Courses available in several languages and can be purchased through EIL.

1.3 Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire, USA

"A Philosophy of Language Teaching" by John Rassias, 1968.

1.4 Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.

a. Annotated bibliography of Peace Corps Language Materials

b. Information brochures on the activities and programs of the Center

1.5 Summer Institute of Linguistics, Santa Anna, California

"Handbook of Literacy" by S. Gudschinsky, 1965

1.6 Committee on World Literacy and Christian Literature

"World Literacy Manual" by Dr. F. Shacklock, New York

2. Materials developed by Volunteer Service Organizations

2.1 Sweden: SIDA - Collected information and training material from the SIDA Language Training Center, Våsteras and technical paper on "Total Immersion - A Statement of Principles", SIDA Language Learning Center, Våsteras, 1967.

2.2 Norway: East African Conversations, Norwegian Peace Corps, Oslo, Norway

2.3 Germany: Integration Material and Program, A Programme for English Speakers, March, 1969, DED

2.4 U.S.A.: U. S. Peace Corps Materials on Language Training (as of August 30, 1968):

General

1. "To Speak As Equals", Peace Corps Faculty Paper No. 1, Allan Kulakow, May, 1968.

   The most up-to-date comprehensive overview of Peace Corps language training, including a comparison of "typical" and high-intensity programs as well as discussion of language testing, research, materials development and language study overseas.

HIGH-INTENSITY LANGUAGE TRAINING

2. "Language Training, Spring, 1968", January 8, 1968.

   The Director's initiating policy statement on high-intensity language training.

3. "Suggested Guidelines for Language Instructors: Salaries in High-Intensity Programs", June 1, 1968 (revised).

   In answer to compensating language instructors for the overtime high-intensity entails.

4. "Super-Intensive Pre-training as a Language Teaching Approach: Summer 1967", Sharon Van Cleve and A. I. Fiks, December 5, 1967.

   Research report on four of the eight experimental programs on which the Director's policy statement about high-intensity language training was based.

5. "Summary and Evaluation of Super-Intensive Pre-training as a Language Teaching Approach: Summer 1967", Allan Kulakow, 1968.

6. "Language Achievement in Fall, 1967 High-Intensity Language Training", Joan Markessinis, June, 1968.

   A report on language achievement in the four Fall 1967 high-intensity programs.

7. "PiTiLiT at Dartmouth, Final Report," John A. Rassias, August 10, 1967.

   Detailed report on Summer 1967's most successful high-intensity program: French.

8. "Swahili/Luganda Intensive Training Camp," Arthur Levi, November 17, 1967.

   Another excellent on-the-scene report of successful high-intensity language training.

9. "A Brief Guide to High-Intensity Language Training in the Peace Corps," Sharon Van Cleve, March, 1968.

   The first report on pedagogical implementation of high-intensity language training.

10. "A Model for High-Intensity Language Training in the Peace Corps", Marie Gadsden and Joan Markessinis, September, 1968.

    The distinguishing characteristics of Peace Corps high-intensity language training as they have evolved since Summer 1967.

RESEARCH

11. "A Quantitative Analysis of Language Training in the Peace Corps," A. I. Fiks, February, 1968.

    The first professional description of "typical" Peace Corps language training, pedagogical techniques and trainee aptitudes/perceptions of them; based on approximately 50 Summer 1967 programs.

12. "Summary of John Carroll's A Parametric Study of Language Training in the Peace Corps", Joan Markessinis, June, 1968.

    Until Fiks' report the only definitive analysis of Peace Corps language training; sample of eight Latin America programs.

13. "Summary of John Carroll's The Foreign Language Attainments of Language Majors in the Senior Year", Joan Markessinis, August, 1968.

    A survey of United States colleges and universities to assess achievement of foreign language majors; their achievement compared to that of Peace Corps trainees, Carroll's statements on FSI testing, and his opinions on factors promoting high language achievement are relevant and complimentary to Peace Corps language training.

TESTING

14. "Modern Language Aptitude Test", Joan Markessinis, January 4, 1968.

    A memo discussing popular misinformation on the aptitude test Peace Corps uses in applicant processing.

15. "Notes from Dr. John Carroll's Colloquium and Later Discussion on the Modern Language Aptitude Test", Joan Markessinis.

    Presented in Peace Corps Washington, January 10, 1968; Dr. Carroll devised the test,

16. "A Comparison of Language Achievement for Low and High Aptitude Trainees in Summer and Fall Agricultural Programs, 1967", Joan Markessinis and Pat Byrd, June 14, 1968.

17. "Information on the Implementation and Reporting of Language Testing Conducted During Training", Allan Kulakow and Traer Sunley, January 28, 1968.

    The policy statement of Peace Corps' domestic FSI testing.

18. "Peace Corps Language Testing Policy", October 4, 1967.

    A clarification of Peace Corps/FSI testing of Volunteers overseas.

19. "Language Proficiency Testing", Claudia Wilds, 1965.

    The most clear explanation in writing of FSI testing theory and practice by the Head of Testing, Foreign Service Institute.

20. "On Testing for S-1+ and S-2", Claudia Wilds, Mary 24, 1968.

    Detailed procedure for evaluating the proficiency levels most commonly attained by Peace Corps trainees.

21. PC-1004's.

    Standard forms for recording trainee language achievement; completed and returned by Language Coordinators to the Division of Language Training, OPR, Peace Corps/Washington.

22. PC-814's.

Standard forms for recording Volunteers language achievement overseas; completed and returned by the Country Language Officer to the Division of Language Training, OPR, Peace Corps/Washington.

23. Language Code Sheet.

Government-wide codes for world languages; used by Peace Corps Language Coordinators on PC-1004 and PC-814 forms.

24. Peace Corps Testing Certificate.

Certificates given to Peace Corps Volunteers by Country Directors indicating end-of-tour language proficiency.

INTEGRATION OF TRAINING COMPONENTS

25. "Language Immersion and Ag-Training", Jack Frankel and Allan Kulakow, January 30, 1968.

A memo on inclusion of minimal agricultural training, when necessary, during the high intensity period.

26. "Integration of Cross-Cultural and Language Components in Peace Corps Training Programs", Jane Coe, May, 1968.

27. "Maximizing Immersion for Support of the Technical Studies Segment--TEFL", Marie Gadsden, March 6, 1968.

Integration of language and TEFL possible through: recognition by TEFL and target Language Coordinators that they are both Language Coordinators; trainee evaluation of pedagogical techniques and teacher performance in their language classes; language and TEFL staff participation in comparative analyses of English and target language.

PEACE CORPS LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES AND MATERIALS

28. "Microwave Format", Joan Markessinis, June, 1968.

An explanation of the microwave materials format and pedagogical technique developed by Dr. Earl Stevick, Foreign Service Institute.

29. "The Flexible Frame", Dr. Earl Stevick, March 10, 1968.

The latest refinement to the microwave technique; allows immediate use of language by immediate introduction of situationally vital vocabulary and structure.

30. "The Modular Mousetrap", Dr. Earl Stevick, April 21, 1967.

    A description of application of the "modular principle" to language materials writing: i.e., screening approximately 95% of a language's grammar through short texts on a subject intensely interesting to the learner.

31. "Multi-media Materials", Joan Markessinis, July 10, 1968.

    A collation of the best and most recurrent 'beyond-the-text' language learning techniques and activities developed by Peace Corps Language Coordinators.

32. Support In-Country for Continued Language Study, OPR/LT, January, 1969.

33. A Report to the Bureau of the Budget on Increased Language Training Requirements, J. Francis, February, 1969.

34. In-Country Language Training (with questionnaires), J. Markessinis, May, 1969.

APPENDIX 5

Audio-Visual Techniques: St. Cloud Method

The following summary was distributed by Mr. Björkman:

St. Cloud	Ecole Normale Supérieure de St. Cloud, where the so called St. Cloud method was elaborated by
CREDIF	Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.
Francais Fondamental ler degré	a vocabulary consisting of 1,475 words published by CREDIF in 1954. The vocabulary is based on spoken French and the words were chosen according to the criteria of either frequency (fréquence) or disposal (disponibilitié). The Français Fondamental, ler degré, also contains a basic grammar partly founded on the recorded conversations which were used for the word list.
Voix et Images de France ler degré or St. Cloud Course	an audio-visual language course completed by CREDIF in 1962 and based on the Français Fondamental, ler degré. The course is composed of 32 lessons presented on film-strips and tape recordings. Each lesson is divided into a dialogue (sketch), drills (mécanisme) and sound practices (phonétique). The course is intended for adults or High School students and should be used as an intensive training programme for beginners.

Prescriptions for a lesson according to CREDIF.

1. Audio-comprehension

   The students look at the film-strip and listen to the tape twice or three times. The teacher must not comment during this part of the lesson. After the students having thus tried to grasp the meaning of the dialogue or drills, the teacher should verify that they really understand, by asking them questions in French.

2. Repetition and memorization

   The teacher tells the students to repeat the sentences after the tape recorder, all together and then individually. He has to correct all pronunciation mistakes. The individual repetition could take place in a language laboratory.

3. Conversation

Looking at the film strip the students first try to remember and pronounce each sentence. The teacher should finally stimulate a free conversation departing gradually from the theme of the dialogue but still using its vocabulary and structures.

Bibliography:

Gougenheim, Michéa, Rivenc, Sauvageot - L'Elaboration du Français Fondamental (1er degré), Didier, Paris, new edition in 1964.

Guberina, Rivenc - Voix et Images de France, Didier, Paris, 1962.

Libbish - Advances in the Teaching of Modern Languages, volume one, the Macmillan Company, New York, 1964.

Lowe, Lowe - On teaching Foreign Languages to Adults, Pergamon Press, Oxford, London, Edinburgh, New York, Paris, Frankfurt; 1965.

APPENDIX 6

Situationally Re-inforced Instruction

Eugene Hall

Institute of Modern Languages
Washington, D. C.

Situational Reinforcement is a language teaching system with which the Institute of Modern Languages began experimenting early in 1967. It was first tried out in a program which we are operating in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, and then used in our schools in Washington and Mexico City.

Our desire to experiment arose from a general dissatisfaction with the results that were being obtained with the audio-lingual method, or pattern practice to give it a name which is perhaps a more accurate description. Until 1967, IML had used a rather rigid application of the audio-lingual method almost exclusively in both its in-house and field programs.

Many of the difficulties that we encountered in its use have also been the cause of complaints with other language teaching systems that have been in common use. I would like to indicate the areas in which we found ALM somewhat less than adequate, not for the purpose of criticizing ALM but rather to indicate some of the problems that we have tried to solve.

First of all students often failed to retain the patterns. In proficiency tests, students usually performed well on the most recently taught patterns, whereas those taught earlier would have been at least partially forgotten - this in spite of the "overskill", as it were, which is supposed to be built into the system. There has been a great deal written about the cumulative effect of pattern practice, but in actual classroom use, the emphasis is usually on mastering new patterns. There is pretty generally in audio-lingual tests a lack of material for synthesizing the patterns.

Second, there was usually a lack of carry-over into the real use of language outside the classroom. Often students who could handle all the drills without difficulty in class could not effectively communicate outside of class. I would suggest that this is in part due to the large amount of out-of-context material that is introduced in the drills, and in part due to a lack of practice that would make the students choose among the patterns.

The extensive use of out-of-context material leads, I believe, to two other problems. One of these is a lack of student interest after the novelty of being in a language class has worn off. The min-mem techniques which are commonly used for ALM become monotonous after a while, and sometimes deadening. In our program in Jeddah, when it was being taught with ALM techniques, we had a constant disciplinary problem with students falling asleep in the language lab, which is not an uncommon phenomenon, but in the classes, too. A second difficulty is an inability to comprehend a good many of the sentences that turn up in the drills, or to relate them to anything which has come up before.

I strongly feel that some of these difficulties are caused by the organization of the material. The great majority of language courses, whatever their methodology, follow a linear presentation of structural items based on some kind of analysis of the target language. Very little consideration, if any, is given to the order of presentation of structures in relation to their usefulness for the purposes of communication. For example, the students on IML's intensive English program used to spend more than 80 hours on sentences with be before coming to any more exciting verbs. Needless to say, at the end of that time they could still communicate only at the most minimal level - and felt the frustration of their slow progress. Nor is the experience of IML unusual in this regard.

Because of the linear presentation of structures, the distinction between beginning, intermediate, and advanced students usually comes down to what structures have been covered. In English courses, for example, the passive voice is often not presented until the later stages of the programs in Spanish or French, the subjunctive is apt to be put off till the end of the book.

A structural approach presents other problems. One is the amount of drill to give on any one pattern. We are all acquainted with texts in which a pattern of low frequency receives the same amount of drill as a pattern of high frequency. We are also acquainted with the texts in which structural items with the same surface characteristics but different deep structures are lumped together in one exercise. In fact, as the analysis of a language becomes more sophisticated, as more patterns are isolated and identified, the task of the textbook writer becomes more difficult, if not impossible. What patterns is he to include, and in what order and what amount of drill?

Perhaps even more important, what attempt should he make to relate a description of the features of a structure to a description of its uses? In ALM, the most common way of doing this has been through dialogues; but dialogues, since they can only present a very limited inventory of structures, especially at the beginning level, have very little of the quality of the real use of language about them. In the grammar-translation method, readings are used for the same purpose, but they are translated from one language to another, as the name of the method of course suggests, rather than being used as a real synthesizing experience in the second language.

The entire problem of "relatedness" has indeed seemed to us to be of major importance, perhaps because our classes in Washington are made up of students with a variety of language backgrounds. In both the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods, the student is exposed to what is essentially a contrastive sample of language, with the material in the target language related to material in the student's native language rather than to an experimental frame-of-reference. I would submit that very little real language learning takes place in the classroom under those circumstances; rather the student acquires samples from which he can make a choice, actively when he deals with speakers of the target language and passively when he reads in the target language.

In effect, I am on the shaky ground of saying that language learning is a trial-and-error process.

To summarize, those problems which we have tried to solve include:

1) Retention of material

2) Carry-over into real communication

3) Comprehension

4) Motivation and student interest

5) Grading into proficiency levels

6) Validity of the analysis and the language corpus

7) Relatedness of the language corpus to the real use of the language.

Situational Reinforcement is a language-teaching system that is use-oriented rather than structure-oriented. It differs from both audio-lingual and grammar-translation in organization, in classroom techniques, and in content, or at least in the way content is used.

The basic organization for SR is according to proficiency levels. We derived the proficiency levels from the FSI S- rating descriptions. In practice, the S-ratings have been interpreted along rather structural lines, although they are not written that way. For our purposes, we rewrote them slightly to give them a skill orientation. Our version of the S-1 rating, for instance, is:

Can express simple ideas, either within the frame of basic cultural patterns of the language, such as telling time and giving greetings; or within a situational frame where he can react to a direct stimulus; his vocabulary range is limited; he frequently gropes for the word or expression he wants; and he makes mistakes that may sometimes obscure meaning; he can, however, manage travel wants and courtesy requirements; his aural comprehension covers similar areas; he may frequently ask to have questions repeated, or responses re-worded.

Our rendition of the S-2 rating is:

Can respond to a wide range of conversational stimuli so that he can carry on a conversation within the range of his experience and interests; may make a number of mistakes though they do not usually obscure meaning; his confidence often is greater than his facility; his knowledge of the language would be considered to be self-generative if he lived in an environment where the language was spoken; he can understand conversations within the range of his experience and interests and can express himself simply with some circumlocutions.

Finally, our reworking of the S-3 rating is:

Can engage in all general conversation; can discuss particular interests with ease; makes random errors which do not obscure meaning; can put ideas together into connected discourse and, conversely, select out the main ideas from connected discourse; comprehension is quite complete for a normal rate of speed; accent may be obviously foreign.

Certain emphases have been added to the original FSI ratings. At the S-1 level, the idea of responding to a direct stimulus is an addition. At the S-2 level, the conversational ability is stressed, and the idea that language learning should be considered self-generative has been added. At the S-3 level, the ability to produce connected discourse has been added, as has the idea of summarizing information.

In other words, we have organized our course to lead the students to achieve certain proficiency levels which are not directly related to covering a set number of items in a structural inventory. To achieve our redefined S-1 goal we have prepared what we call the Nucleus Course. It emphasizes such cultural sequences as greetings, giving information about oneself, and telling time. It also teaches the student, obviously within a restricted frame-of-reference, to give a linguistic response to a direct stimulus. The Nucleus Course requires 80 to 100 hours of teaching time. In the Nucleus Course in English, most of the major structural items, both syntactic and morphological, are presented. I'll have more to say about the nature of the presentation in a few moments.

At the Nucleus level, the student for the most part is reacting to a stimulus which is physically present: an object which he can see, an action which he can perform or describe. In the next three books of the English program, which together are intended for about 240 hours of instruction, the emphasis changes to a more abstract use of language - reacting to a secondary rather than a primary linguistic stimulus, or, more simply, to conversation. The goal is to achieve our redefined S-2 level, or perhaps a little higher for students with good aptitude and motivation.

We have not placed any particular limits on the structures used at this level, by the way, though there is a certain amount of grading according to the length and complexity of the sentences that are used.

Two out of four advanced texts have been prepared in the English series, with the goal of reaching our definition of the S-3 level or a little better, together with some practice in composition and style, since most of IML's intensive English students are being prepared to go to universities. The practice in conversation continues, but there is a new emphasis on connected discourse, on the one hand, and on summarizing information, on the other. Each level is not just more of the same, with additional vocabulary items. At each level, a different, and more difficult, language skill is demanded from the students.

I have said that Situational Reinforcement is not structure-oriented, but structure must somehow be covered. How then do we present it and order it?

It is presented and ordered according to a situational frame-of-reference. At the Nucleus level, a series of sequences is built up around objects which can usually be found and actions which can usually be performed in a classroom - the immediate environment in which the student finds himself. The items which make up the sequence are controlled by the situation, not by an analysis of structures. And it is performing the sequence as a whole, rather than drilling on its individual parts, to which the teacher is building.

It would be descriptive to say that structures are presented in clusters, rather than individually, in connected patterns of discourse rather than isolated patterns of structure. Because their presentation is controlled by the situation, structures appear over and over again in a variety of different circumstances. A system of continuous review is therefore built into the teaching material. Any given structure is also effectively contrasted with several others, again in a variety of different circumstances.

2

Each sequence is built up from a series of separate response drills, each of which consists of a question and answer, or a command, question, and answer. Each of them is a genuine communication, a real use of language that is related to a contextual frame. In the manner that we have prescribed for their presentation in the class, the teacher has the students listen while making sure that they understand the response drill. They then repeat the response drill. After this it becomes an exchange between teacher and student, with the teacher asking the question and the student giving the response. Then two students practice the drill between themselves. Another response drill is added to the first with the same procedures, and then the two are practiced together, until finally the students are able to perform the entire sequence. Many of the sequences offer alternate items. A sequence with book, for example, might have notebook as an alternate item. The sequence would be practiced all the way through with book before notebook was introduced into the sequence.

At the Nucleus level particularly, there is a great deal of motor activity involved in performing the response drills. Various studies that have been carried out lead to the conclusion that motor activity is a definite aid in speeding the acquisition of language patterns.

There is a very short cycle between presentation of the material - the original listening and repetition - and its use for the purpose of communication.

From the very beginning, the teachers are encouraged to vary the situations or to create analogous situations. The students are thus compelled to recombine the various patterns which have been presented to them. They are put into situations - controlled situations - where they have to choose the correct patterns; in other words, where they are generating language.

Finally, the Nucleus and its work book and the SR texts on all other levels have more reading and writing practice than has been common with ALM materials. The ALM theory rightly gave priority to developing the aural-oral skills, but often to the extent where any reading other than the drill material and the dialogues was not encouraged. The structural presentation of ALM materials was another barrier to the use of reading, especially at the beginning stages. Readings using nothing but sentence patters with be present a rather severe limitation on content.

In fact, reading from the earlier stages seems to me to have two distinct advantages, other than the obvious one of reinforcement. One of them is as a synthesizing experience - recombining the structures that have been presented and thereby helping to broaden the students' frame-of-reference, both linguistically and experientially. Since SR presented a larger number of structures at an earlier stage than ALM or grammar-translation have normally done, we were able to include simple readings in Lesson III of the Nucleus text and Lesson I of the Nucleus workbook. The second purpose for which the readings have been used is to present structural items within a contextual frame which makes clear their function. In the reading for Lesson III of the Nucleus, for example, the expression too meaning also is introduced without having been given previously in the oral material; in the reading for Lesson IV, nouns in sequence are given for the first time; and so on.

Nobody has made a complete structural inventory of our Nucleus text - in part because I have discouraged it - but it does include the major syntactic patterns, the major tenses with the exception of the perfect tenses, some of the modal auxiliaries, a few readily accessible examples of the passive and of verbals - in fact, something that resembles a real mix of language structures. In fact, the attempt throughout has been to present language as a whole rather than little fragments of language which the student would later have to assemble like a jigsaw puzzle.

The teacher plays a very important part in SR. In rigid applications of ALM, the teacher is usually considered to be a model and a drillmaster. With SR he fills these functions, as of course he must, but he must also see that the students relate to the situations; he must be prepared to create situations or to take advantage of those that happen, as when a student drops a book, for example. Above all, he must be prepared to correct and prompt and guide the students in a way that will always help them toward more effective communication.

Parenthetically, teachers who have been trained in ALM - and most of those who work for IML have been - have problems when they first use SR. Almost invariably they feel that they have to stop and drill, to provide some mechanical exercises, on each pattern as it occurs, according to the "overlearning" theory which is so much a part of ALM. In fact, the continuous review and the opportunity to recombine and to generate that is provided by SR has proved in our experience to be a more valuable approach to learning.

I recently came across a listing by E. V. Gatenby of what he considers the ten principal steps by which a child absorbs his native language. They are:

1. New names are learnt in close association with the object, quality, or action named, or with pictures of them. There is nothing corresponding to the conveying of meaning through use of another language.

2. The learning is through aural perception, not through visual symbols for sound.

3. Common groups of sounds rather than single sounds remain in the memory to be treated as units of speech.

4. Speech is learnt to the accompaniment of physical, emotional, and to some extent (as in story-telling) mental activity. Such learning or mental impressions are unconscious; that is, the child centres its attention on the action - its own, or that of others - not on the sounds that accompany it. The retention of the "sound effects" is effortless.

5. Constant correction goes on.

6. Natural compulsion or necessity. The child must use language to satisfy its many wants.

7. Nature supplies the maximum number of teachers and teaching equipment and devotes the maximum amount of time to her task.

8. Constant revision - that is, review in American usage - goes on.

9. The whole process is full of variety and interest.

10. Speech only is taught - not reading or writing.

We feel that we have met most of these criteria in our Nucleus programs. Our greatest variation, of course, is that we use reading and writing to supplement oral-aural procedures; but the age of our students as well as their reason for studying has made this feasible. Second, of course, we cannot devote the same amount of time or the same number of teachers to the task as nature does. Instead we have tried to control the environment and the situations to make them as linguistically universal as we can. And third, nobody learns a second language except voluntarily, so compulsion is necessarily lacking. Again, we have tried to compensate by cutting down early frustration and providing activities that involve and motivate the students.

Our model, in short, for putting together the Nucleus course has not been an analysis of the target language but rather the way in which children learn their native language, as far as we understand it. We have tried to fit it within a classroom situation and to control it, since control, of course, is the essential ingredient of a system.

Above the Nucleus level content and its use assume paramount importance. We have thus far worked on two quite distinct courses above the Nucleus -

a course with technical content for our Jeddah program and a course with general cultural orientation content for Washington. We are also preparing courses for students who wish to learn office skills and for those who wish to learn management practices.

Because of the large inventory of structural items that we introduced in the Nucleus level, we found that we were able to introduce meaningful material - skill-oriented material - at a much earlier level than has been possible in most language courses. In our Jeddah program this was a matter of absolute necessity. Many of the students were going on to take technical training. In the original ALM course, a number of technical words were introduced in the drills, and some readings in science were introduced at the intermediate level. But these were inadequate. Comprehension was a constant problem; and, since the original course was laid out along traditional ALM lines, structures such as the passive voice and causal verbs were not introduced early enough to give any real preparation for the kind of prose style in which technical manuals are written. Furthermore, the students generally had enormous gaps in their education, at least from a Western point-of-view. They were strangers on the whole to even the most basic scientific concepts.

In the SR version of the Jeddah program, the Nucleus was extended to include practice in using English weights and measures and handtools. The basic purpose, of course, was practice in the language, but we took advantage of the needs of the program both for motivation and actually to implant skills. At the upper levels, the material is directed toward practice on mathematical skills and on various scientific concepts. Again, the target is the use of language, but there has been a definite gain in the educational background of the students and in student interest.

Our Washington program differs considerably from the Jeddah program, which is a very specialized one. The majority of the students in Washington are going on to schools and universities; a large proportion of the remainder are people who are going to live in the United States either as members of diplomatic missions or as immigrants. The content of the material for the Washington program, therefore, has been planned around an orientation to American life.

While the material is of some intrinsic interest to the students, the real point is in its organization and use. For the moment I am speaking only about the first three Orientation books - those which are intended to bring the students up to the S-2 level. Each book is intended for approximately 80 hours of instruction.

In a typical lesson there are two separate sequences, each dealing with a different phase of American life and customs. At the beginning of each sequence there is a listening practice which is related to a picture or to visual aids, such as coins, driver's licenses, credit cards, and so on. The listening practice is given essentially for the purpose of comprehension. Following the listening practice, there is a series of response drills in question and answer form; these include the same information that's given in the listening practice, though not necessarily in the same words. The same steps are used in presenting the response drills as in the Nucleus Course; that is, listening, repeating, teacher-student practice, and student-student practice. Also as in the Nucleus Course, the point is to build the response drills into a sequence.

The material is in no way similar to ALM dialogues. It is a real exchange of information on such subjects as vending machines, renting cars, buying gasoline, sports, credit and banking arrangements. The situations, or topics rather, are graded through the course of the three books from the more concrete - coins, bills, vending machines, for example - to the less concrete - banking and credit arrangements, Immigration and Naturalization Service regulations. The structures that are used are those which are necessary to impart the information, As in the Nucleus, they are presented in clusters, and they occur over and over again so that there is continuous review.

Furthermore, the sequences are not intended to be taught like ALM dialogues; they are not intended to be memorized and acted out like a little play. Teachers are encouraged to be permissive with answers to the questions in the response drills; that is, the exact answer in the text does not need to be memorized and parroted back to the teacher; any structurally and semantically correct answer is acceptable. In fact, we feel that variations from the set responses should be encouraged rather than discouraged.

In the Nucleus Course, the lessons build to a practice of the sequences and situational variations on them. In the Orientation books, the lessons build to a conversation practice. In the texts, this is given as a series of suggested questions that the teachers can ask or use as models for questions of their own. The questions generally divide into two categories: those that deal with the student's own experience with a particular cultural phenomenon; or those that ask him to contrast an American cultural pattern with one in his own country.

These do not serve the same purpose as the comprehension questions with which we are all familiar from a number of language teaching methods. They are instead an attempt to provide controlled conversation from a very early level. The topic is restricted but the structural inventory is not. New patterns and new combinations of patterns are constantly being given; indeed, the response drills and sequences act as patterns of discourse. Language is treated as a whole within the levels of proficiency throughout the SR program.

In practice, this can be carried to a point where it is fair to say that no one lesson, or at least the conversation practice from any lesson, is unique and irreplaceable because it gives practice on one particular structural item. There are obviously topics about which some students will be willing, even anxious, to talk, and other topics in which it is difficult to elicit much interest at all. Rather than pursue a topic in which the students display no interest, it is better to go on to the next lesson. It may well be that a personal experience will revive interest in a topic which was covered some days before.

That remark presupposes that the students are in contact with American behavior patterns, as our students in Washington of course are. However, we also have a school in Mexico City, where the problems are somewhat different. When the teachers first started to use the Orientation texts, they complained that many of the phenomena described were not characteristic of Mexico. Their particular example was that a Mexican man would never take his clothes to the laundry. But of course they were missing the point - that it was an opportunity to talk about the cultural difference. The response drills and the sequences give information about American customs and practices as a background to which the student can relate his own experiences, either within his own culture or as an observer of or participant in American life.

At the Nucleus level, there is a definite attempt to include as many of the basic syntactic and morphological patterns as possible, though not in an order decided in advance. The Orientation I book also deliberately includes a few more patterns that were not covered in the Nucleus.

Other than this, however, the order and choice of pattern is essentially random. They appear - and reapper - according to the necessity of imparting information. I have mentioned before and want to emphasize again that patterns recur over and over again. The process for the student is one of gradual familiarization with the whole rather than the overlearning of individual segments that is prescribed by ALM.

There is another point that I would like to make about our handling of the corpus. I believe that we cover more patterns than most linear language programs. I can, for example, think of about 50 different ways of expressing contrastive and oppositional ideas in English, some of them rather recherché, of course. If these are covered at all in a linear course, they are usually crammed in hastily at the advanced level. We begin exposing the students to these, and to expressions of purpose, result, condition, and so on, from the Orientation I level.

As in the Nucleus Course, readings are also used in the Orientation books. They serve the same purposes of broadening the student's frame-of-reference and introducing and reinforcing structures. They also serve the purpose of maintaining a structural mix. If, for example, the response drills use the simple present tense extensively, the readings are apt to use the simple past tense extensively.

The teacher's role of course is very important. A weak teacher can reduce the entire system to repetition, memorization, and routine questions. A strong teacher can generate excitement and discussion.

Our advanced material begins with the Orientation IV level, and has not yet been completed. At the Orientation I level, the conversation practices were added to give the students a new challenge. At the Orientation IV level, another type of exercise, called a sequencing practice, has been added as still another challenge. As I said earlier, we felt that one of the features that should distinguish the S-3 level was the ability to produce connected discourse. The sequencing practices are intended to lead to this ability. The student is asked to summarize the response drills, or a subject suggested by them, in two or three connected sentences.

Then, following the readings, instead of the customary comprehension questions, the student is asked to summarize each paragraph in one sentence. He is then asked to expand these sentences into a paragraph without referring to his book.

In the Orientation V book, Schools and Universities, the conversation practice is moved to the beginning of the lesson. It was felt that at this level, the students should be able to generate a conversation of their own without the support of the information given in the response drills.

The material at this level has become much more abstract and conceptual. It is presented throughout the book without any pictures or other visual aids. Language has become the sole medium of communication. The readings are also pitched to a much more mature level.

There will eventually be two more books to follow the Orientation V: Schools and Universities text. One will deal with American government and will include the same kinds of practices. The second, and the last book in the series, will deal, consciously for the first time, with problems of style and usage. It will be intended primarily for those students who are going on to universities.

In addition to the basic texts, we are also developing a series of supplementary materials which are intended to be used in close connection with the texts. From the Nucleus through the Orientation III level, there are Workbooks which are intended for practice in writing. We have a duty to give our prospective university students in Washington practice in writing as soon as possible. I also believe that written practice fixes a pattern more firmly for many students than any other kind of exercise. I am not trying to suggest, of course, that writing has priority over oral-aural practice. Rather we are extending the theory of short cycle from presentation to use to include writing too.

The Workbooks have picture cues about which questions are asked, the same or similar to those given in the response drills. They also include additional short readings with comprehension questions.

We are also developing a series of supplementary readers from the Orientation I level through the remainder of the course. They have been put into use so recently that I can only say that it is our hope that they will be an aid in guiding the students toward producing connected discourse at an even earlier level. In the readers for Orientation I and II, there is a picture which illustrates a reading. This is followed by a series of comprehension questions. Some of them can be answered from information given in the text or the illustrations, but others have to be answered out of the student's inferences or imagination.

The students then have to put their answers together into paragraphs. Any short answers have to be added if they are necessary.

We are also preparing tapes and tape books for the entire series. The tape books are similar to the Workbooks, with responses to questions to be given on the basis of picture cues. The further into the Nucleus one goes, the more of these are intended to make the students generate new sentences - that is sentences that have not occurred previously in classroom practice.

Situational Reinforcement is an attempt to create a language learning system built primarily on psychological principles rather than on linguistic principles. This is not a repudiation of linguistics but an effort to put its findings into a different framework. No one at IML would claim that every part of SR is entirely original, or that it is the final answer to language teaching. There are many obvious problems - progress and aptitude testing, for example, or what to do about the student who demands to learn grammar. We do feel, however, that we have broken through one major barrier - the idea that a language course must be organized along the lines of a step-by-step analysis of language. We have gone further and organized a program around a different set of assumptions, and we are surrounded every day by the evidence that so far at least we have been right.

APPENDIX 7

High Intensive Language Training

by

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Having now had experience with two high intensity language programs in Peace Corps training, I would like to pass on to interested staff members a few of my observationss

I am pleased with the results obtained with this type of program, both from the point of view of language learning and from that of the various extra-linguistic components of the training program which can be subsumed under the name orientation. It seems to me that especially in the area of orientation, there is much that The Experiment could and should use in its own programs.

First, let me describe my observations and evaluations of HILT as a language learning program. (By HILT, I mean a 4 week period of approximately 200 hours, a significant portion of which - at least 100 hours - is total immersion.)

Probably if one compares a HILT-type program where up to 200 hours of language learning is condensed into one month, and a program where 200 hours is spread over a longer period of time, the results, as measured by an FSI proficiency test would not be markedly different. But there are, I feel, certain clear advantages to be gained through a HILT program. They are discussed below.

Grammaticality. Probably, the grammaticality of one's speaking habits is more a function of extensive exposure to a language than it is to intensive exposure. In other words, the development of grammaticality as habitual behavior requires time, and intensive language programs by their very nature cannot provide an extensive exposure to a language.

Pronunciation. I don't see any great difference here, although I do have a feeling that in a HILT program where there is constant exposure to native-speaker pronunciation, there is less danger of incorrect pronunciations becoming established through negative reinforcement.

Comprehension. The HILT language learner's comprehension of the target language is quite definitely superior to that of the trainees in other programs. This is simply and obviously true because the learner hears more of the target language. This is especially true of HILT programs that contain a significant period of immersion. During immersion, the learner simply MUST listen in order to function.

Vocabulary. The HILT learner definitely builds a larger and more functional vocabulary. This is because the vocabulary he acquires is stimulated by the force of his own needs. And, with an immersion component, gaps in vocabulary become immediately apparent because the learner's daily life determines the vocabulary to be learned.

Fluency. HILT learners are very definitely stronger in this area. In fact, I would single this out as the area of greatest strength in HILT programs. The immersion period is especially important here. During immersion a few responses are used so often that they become automatic. I have observed, for example, TEFL trainees using Farsi classroom expressions quite unconsciously while engrossed in teaching English.

Fluency in a language is attained only through a willingness to USE the language; to try to say something and be unafraid of mistakes. HILT, and especially immersion HILT very successfully breaks down the barriers and inhibitions that keep many people from trying to speak the target language. It has been my experience that HILT produces a language learner who babbles - albeit not always grammatically - in the language. Not only does he overcome the inhibitions about using the new language, but he also builds up a very valuable psychological attitude toward the language he is learning. He no longer views the target language as a "foreign" language (a corruption of, or an inaccurate copy of "real" language - his native language) but he begins to accept the target language as a genuine medium of communication in which he can live. In essence, the "foreign" language becomes a "second" language.

Another aspect of fluency needs to be mentioned. By learning circumlocutions and by learning to manipulate quickly a small number of patterns, the learner can become quite fluent in the target language without really being a master of it. The force of necessity generated in a HILT program pushes the learner to learn how to circumlocute and use effectively and efficiently the limited language he knows.

A HILT program is well suited to the aims of Peace Corps because its strongest features are in the area of comprehension, vocabulary, and fluency. The Peace Corps volunteer must be strong in these areas if he is to get things done and survive in another culture. To a certain extent, grammaticality and pronunciation are niceties. This, of course, is not news to EIL, since our aims - survival and functioning in a foreign culture - are essentially the same.

The implementation of a HILT program requires techniques that are basically the same as a more standard audio-lingual intensive language. There are some special and general features of approach and technique in a HILT program which I would like to discuss briefly.

1. HILT should be approached through an orientation period of at least 40 hours. Immersion works better if around 100 hours of warm-up precede it. This is especially true in the case of learners who have no previous knowledge of the language they are learning. During the orientation period emphasis is placed on building a "survival vocabulary" so that one can actually survive during immersion. Essentially, then, for the first 40 hours the learners are engaged in mastering a handful of useful statements, commands, and requests; building "tool questions" which can be used to unlock further language structures and/or words, i.e. "How do you say _______?"

2. A HILT program should use a direct method approach for several reasons. The basic reason, of course, is that during immersion all communication should be in the target language. Thus, the learner must from the very first day of class become accustomed to the fact that the instructor is not going to supply translations or explanations in the native language. It is also psychologically important to remove the crutch of the native language, and to force the learner to start using the target language from the first hour of class. This approach also demands a very active participation on the part of the learner. If he does not attentively listen, watch, ask questions and formulate conjectures on what he sees and hears, he cannot learn the language. The instructors are not forcing the language down the throats of an empty receptacle.

Needless to say, this approach keeps people awake. It also creates discomfort and frustration when meanings are not immediately apparent. But this may not be such a bad thing. One is more apt to retain and value something that is gained through hard work. And one of the few pleasures of being a language student is to discover - by yourself - what's going on. This experience of struggling with the language is also valuable because it better prepares the learner to be his own language analyst once he gets to the country and has no teacher to lean on.

3. As the emphasis in a HILT program is placed on using the language and living in the language, the over-riding concern is acquiring the language is: go ahead and say it, right or wrong. Language classes and drill sessions should reflect this emphasis, and consequently, the program moves as quickly as possible from the repetition stage of language learning to the generation stage. For this reason, more than 4 consecutive repetitions of any one phrase is discouraged, and question and answer drills should be used as quickly as possible. (This approach follows the basic philosophy behind the so-called micro-wave technique.)

4. 8 hours a day of language learning demands that a lot of material and considerable variety of activities be included in each day. It is better to present more material - especially vocabulary - than the student can absorb in any one day. Even if there is only 40% immediate retention of the day's new material, exposure to unretained material is better than no exposure at all - if in the following day (and days) the same structures and words occur again. This re-cycling and review of material is preferable if the repeated items reappear in different contexts. This is not unlike the technique used in programmed textbooks. Above all, variety of classroom activity is essential. For example, I often encourage the teachers to get out of the classroom and conduct a roving language class centered on the vocabulary of the campus, or centered around a conversation topic.

5. The language activities during HILT are the daily culmination of the language learning process. They are designed with two major purposes in mind: 1) to bridge the gap between the classroom mentality established in necessarily controlled drills and conversations, and real-life communication situations. It is my belief that this is the most seriously neglected aspect of most language programs. The classroom is necessarily an artificial situation. There are few distractions (noise) from the communication process. In a real-life communication situation there is considerable "noise", i.e. there are many more things to think about, other than the correctness of one's utterances. And 2) the activities provide a situational stimulus which provokes or elicits the patterns and vocabulary which have been the focus of the classroom drill sessions.

I have concentrated on the HILT program as a language learning program, and although I think there are many many advantages to be gained from the program and approaches described above, the advantages to be gained from the extra-linguistic aspects of a HILT program are, I think, very exciting and very relevant to the Experiment's orientation programs.

Orientation, as I understand it, is aimed at giving the trainee an understanding of what is involved in cross-cultural confrontation; a basic understanding of the culture he is preparing to live in and an increased awareness of himself as a person. In what follows I will describe how the purposes of orientation can be obtained in a HILT language program.

Ideally, of course, the culture of the target country is created on the campus and the student is immersed in that culture. Practically, within the confines of an American context, there are many limitations, but a close approximation can be achieved. This approximation, however, cannot be made only through the extensive use of realia, or even through situations and role plays where the target language is not used. In my opinion, it is not the particular characteristics of scenery, architecture, food, or even social conventions that cause the primary difficulty for the volunteer or experimenter in a foreign land. Culture shock comes not so much from unfamiliarity (unfamiliar surroundings can be, in fact, stimulating) as it does from the inability to communicate in a satisfying way with the people of the target country. An adult has, after all, an adult's ability to think and feel at a very sophisticated level. And the adult thinks and feels along a culturally (and ultimately linguistically) determined plane. But if the adult foreigner does not speak the language at an adult level, he has no adequate medium with which to share his thoughts and emotions - unless, of course, he seeks out English speakers. The result is isolation.

Isolation with the accompanying feelings of frustration and childishness are the feelings that should be EXPERIENCED in a training program. I would stress the word experience, for descriptions, discussions, observations, and even role-playing in English cannot be a satisfactory experience.

What I am describing, the generation of isolation, frustration, and childishness is obviously best achieved during the immersion segment of HILT. In both of my experiences with HILT, about one week after immersion began, the program apparently broke down. But it was not the program that faltered, but rather the trainees. A gap between staff and trainees developed basically because the staff and trainees, under the structure of HILT were no longer able to communicate and understand each other. In both programs the trainees developed fantastic notions and interpretations of staff conduct. Even the most harmless smile of a staff member was sometimes interpreted as the sinister leer of a sadist. This was a genuine failure in communication brought on by the environment of immersion. Such an experience is a very close parallel to the experience of culture shock.

A few basic features of a HILT program, described below, must be met to create the effects of living in another culture.

1. All communications between staff and trainees must be done in the target language. The staff should not compromise on this.

2. The instructors must be available AND WITH the trainees throughout the day - and night. This creates not only dependency feelings among the trainees, but also brings the trainees into a very close, intimate contact with a native speaker.

3. The evening activities must be planned and structured, but there must also be considerable freedom to allow for spontaneous cross-cultural confrontations. Frustrations do not have to be built into the activity as the activity itself will create frustrating situations. As an example of this, if the trainee is asked to buy a round-trip, second-class bus ticket from Shiraz to Tehran, confusion and frustration arise naturally from the complexity of the task and the inadequacy of the trainee's language. It is worth noting that the trainees often see these activities as "games" or "artificial", but there is nothing artificial about failing to accomplish

something because of poor communication. (And what could be closer to the experience of a fresh volunteer eager to accomplish something in a language he cannot control.)

In addition to being a good language program and a good orientation program, there are other advantages to be gained from HILT.

1. HILT does have the potential to be an effective stimulus to self-selection.

2. The experience itself is a real educational experience, and not just an extension of academia. Intellectual prowess and skillful verbalizations in discussion groups will not be helpful in getting through HILT.

3. HILT can be a confidence builder. By demanding use of the language and giving the trainee the opportunity to accomplish something in the target language, the program helps to overcome the fear of using the language. Andy by living through psychological conditions similar to those of the stranger in a foreign culture, the trainee can approach his new experience with some confidence that he can live through it. To quote one HILT graduate, now in Iran: "I still feel the cross-cultural aspects of the HILT experience gave me a good psychological preparation for Iran. So far I feel very good about being here. Even the leers in the bazaar haven't bothered me."

4. The experience of HILT is also very useful in giving incidental training in the use of extra-linguistic communication skills.

5. It is my feeling that having participated in HILT, and having struggled with the language, and being forced to figure much of it out for himself, the trainee is better prepared to continue his struggle with the language once he arrives in the country and has no teacher to depend on.

In conclusion, I want to say that by careful integration of language, cross-cultural studies, area studies, and technical studies, HILT can be a very efficient training program.

APPENDIX 8

Teachers' Training Format

by

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Assumptions, aims, principles and timetable for a six day Teachers' Training Workshop.

1. Assumptions.
   1) Native speaker or equivalent fluency
   2) Some experience of teaching
   3) Mixed backgrounds, mixed nationalities
   4) Experience of life in a developing country

2. (a) Aims General. To produce a well briefed cooperative team of resourceful teachers whose combined skills will together ensure a good volunteer training program and who can teach efficiently from the first day of the course.

2. (b) Specific Aims of the Workshop.
   1) To describe and illustrate the pre-entry behavior of the course members
   2) To describe and illustrate the target language skills profile or, put another way, the terminal language behavior required of the course members in their various roles in the field
   3) To state aims and the philosophy of language learning and practice
   4) To introduce and demonstrate the various teaching and learning activities
   5) To introduce, demonstrate and practice the various materials, tapes, texts, books, learning models, etc.

3. The principles of the Teachers' Training Workshop

O' Objectives must be clear and stated
P Participation (by the trainees) in the discussions of aims and objectives and in the demonstration and practice provides
I Information to the trainer or trainers, a continuous
F Feedback which must ensure
M Modification of the original aims, objectives and methods. The last step is the
I Implementation of these modifications which completes the circle and ensures participation.

This is the O'pifmi programme.

The D.S. approach is

do it rather than describe it
show it, don't talk about it.

Day zero: arrival, introductions, dinner together.

	8 - 11	12 - 3	3 - 5	6 - 10
Day 1:	Teachers' background and needs. Why are we here? Discussion. Statement of policy and principles. First lesson in Sw.	1) Terminal behavior required of course members. Questions, disc. statement 2) Re-entry level of skills, demonstration, statement, questions 3) Testing and the test battery.	Sport	1) The aims and objectives of language skills courses a) discussion b) questions c) statement of principles.
Day 2:	A typical timetable, the various learning activities pre-lab, post-lab, practical Engl., topics, the library, the tape library.	Practical admin. details: work permit, bank, police, shopping, etc.		"A log in the machine". The organization of SIDA and our place in it.
Day 3:	The lab. centered course: a) principles, b) practice. The concept of pre-lab, lab and post-lab work c) materials, the library of tapes. Method: presentation, demonstration, questions and discussion.		Sport	Teaching materials and records search and study
Day 4:	Class teaching 1) Presentation 2) Demonstration 3) Discussion 4) Practice	Conversation 1) Presentation 2) Demonstration 3) Discussion 4) Practice	Sport	Practical English (as for class teach.) Evening "topics"(as for class teaching)
Day 5:	Micro-teaching preparation	Micro-teaching discussion	Sport	Week 1 timetable of classes and activities

Day 6: Preparation of classrooms, materials, lessons.

Day 7: No programme - arrival of course members.

APPENDIX 9

Language Proficiency Testing

by Claudia Wilds
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LANGUAGE TESTING IN THE PEACE CORPS

Language testing for the Peace Corps began in June of 1963 when the first Volunteers were ending their service abroad. Examiners from the Foreign Service Institute, the training branch of the Department of State, gave Spanish proficiency tests to some 90 Volunteers in the Chile I and Colombia I groups during their terminal conferences.

Since that time over 2,000 tests have been given overseas, primarily to terminating Volunteers in Latin America and South Asia, and all trainees are rated in speaking proficiency both before and after training. In July, 1965 the testing policy was extended to provide for mid-tour testing in the field wherever possible.

The Testing Procedure

The tests used in the Peace Corps are those developed by the State Department to rate the speaking and reading proficiency of Foreign Service personnel and subsequently applied to personnel of the U.S. Information Agency, the Agency for International Development, and foreign affairs employees of many other Government organizations. They are designed to provide a quick, dependable measure of ability that can be used to determine linguistic qualifications for specific job assignments or need for further training.

A test normally lasts 30-40 minutes; the time is evenly divided between speaking and reading (if there is a writing system and the examinee claims reading proficiency). The examiners are usually a scientific linguist and a native speaker of the language involved.

The speaking part is primarily conducted by the native speaker, with the linguist observing and taking notes on the performance. An experienced testing team will have in mind throughout both the functional skills and the linguistic skills to be measured: the functional skills in the form of topics to be covered, varying from person to person, and the linguistic skills principally in the form of a check-list, mental or written, of phonetic and grammatical features of the language.

The test normally begins with routine greetings, introductions, and other remarks to make the examinee feel at home and give the examiners a sense of whether he is at the top, middle, or bottom of the range.

The next step is usually to ask autobiographical questions about home, family, past and current work, and future plans. If the answers to these questions come painfully or not at all, the rest of the test is conducted at an elementary level. If the answers come with reasonable ease and linguistic accuracy, the questioning usually probes the examinee's field of special interest in more technical detail, explores local current events of all kinds, and may go into quite complex and abstract issues pertinent to the examinee's experience.

In addition to this informal conversation the speaking test may include at least two other features.

The first is a problem given by the linguist (usually in English) in which the examinee and the native speaker play roles. For example, "You have just been stopped by this policeman for having driven unintentionally the wrong way down a one-way street."

The second requires the examinee to serve as an interpreter between the linguist and the native speaker; for example, the linguist may play an American who needs to rent office space and requires special conditions because of certain equipment that must be installed. Such a situation permits elicitation of hard-to-get syntactic patterns, assessment of flexibility of vocabulary, and a precise testing of comprehension.

Through all these interchanges the examiners are constantly alert to the examinee's scope and limitations in the language. The success he has in choosing precise words and structures or in making circumlocutions, the demands he makes on his listener in decoding the message transmitted, the degree to which he understands what he hears.

When they are satisfied with the speech sample collected, the speaking part ends, and they move to the assessment of reading ability, a relatively cut-and-dried procedure.

The reading part requires oral translation into English of passages of varying levels of difficulty, mainly taken unedited from newspapers, magazines, and non-fictional books. Topics are chosen from areas of interest to people in international affairs rather than literary specialists.

The Rating System

Each part of the test yields a score, called respectively an S-Rating and an R-Rating, based on a scale from 0 (no practical proficiency) to 5 (native or bilingual proficiency). Each of the points from 1 to 5 on both S- and R- scales are defined in as much detail as universal applicability permits (see Appendix A), in both linguistic and functional terms. In addition every number except the 5 may be modified upward by a plus (e.g. S-2+), so that there is, effectively, an eleven point scale that can be used.

While the official definitions were developed in terms that could be useful to examiners, examinees, and future employers, assignment boards, universities, etc., supplements to the S-Ratings were written later specifically for language specialists (Factors in Speaking Proficiency, Appendix B) and examinees (Check List for Self-Appraisal, Appendix C). Although these three descriptions have different emphases, they converge in their characterization of behavior at each level.

Because the scales cover the whole range of competence, rather than mastery of a limited body of material as in an academic course, they are especially appropriate for measuring the varied patterns of growth demonstrated by the Peace Corps Volunteer. Here are two typical testing records for PCV's in Latin America:

Pre-training	Post-training	Mid-tour	Final
S-0	S-2	S-2+ R-2	S-3 R-3
S-2	S-3	S-3+ R-3+	S-4 R-4+

Even though the distance from one point to the next on the scale is not equal, all along the range, the ratings can be handled as if that were the case, without serious distortion. Consequently considerable information can be gained from analysis of test scores alone.

Linguistic Characteristics of PCVs

When the testing program first began there was much concern that the Volunteer would be penalized for the brand of the language he spoke. Peace Corps staff members assumed that Volunteers would be very proficient speakers of a highly localized illiterate "dialect." It was suggested that a third rating be established to measure competence in this dialect--a suggestion which turned out to be unwarranted.

In every language tested the mistakes Volunteers make are normally those made by all native speakers of English. While most Volunteers acquire marked regional accents, this fact is of no importance so long as they are intelligible to an educated native speaker of the same region. Otherwise the range of vocabulary and ability to understand normal discourse is in no way exceptional. While fluency tends to be high, control of grammatical structure varies according to training, sensitivity to language, and amount of experience, not according to locale. Again and again two Volunteers working in the same village have come out with ratings as different as S-2 R-1+ and S-4 R-4. The first will deny that many forms of the language are used in the village (e.g. "But nobody ever used the subjunctive"); the other will have observed and mastered the usage of those very forms, will have read as widely as time and resources permit, and as a result will be more useful linguistically not only in that village but everywhere else the language is spoken.

It has become very clear in every group tested that growth in awareness of grammatical structure tends to stop at the end of training. Vocabulary expands and fluency increases, but it is very much the exceptional Volunteer who learns new morphological forms and syntactic patterns of his own. Most Volunteers simply do not hear features that were not pointed out (and, preferably practiced) during training.

One of the consequences of this selective deafness is the inability of most Volunteers to compare themselves accurately on linguistic grounds with their fellows. It is not uncommon for some S-2+ to communicate more effectively than some S-3 for reasons that have nothing to do with language: warmth and attractiveness of personality, imaginativeness in using gestures and props, and general skillfulness in exploiting face-to-face situations.

Getting along with the local citizenry and doing an effective job are not factors which can be taken into account by language specialists, nor should they be. One of the continuing difficulties for examiners lies in convincing the Volunteer that it is reasonable and appropriate to judge his linguistic competence rather than his overall success in communication, and that the two abilities are not identical.

As training programs improve and Volunteers are given opportunity and encouragement to go on studying the language in the field, test scores should rise. The mid-tour tests are most valuable as diagnostic instruments which alert the Volunteer to the faults and gaps in his control of the language and provide data on weaknesses of training. If remedial work can be done before the terminal tests, both awareness and proficiency can be expected to improve.

APPENDIX A

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY RATING SCALE

The rating scales described below have been adopted by the Peace Corps from the language rating scales developed by the Foreign Service Institute, Department of State, to provide a meaningful method of characterizing the language skills of Peace Corps Trainees and Volunteers. Unlike academic grades, which measure achievement in mastering the content of a prescribed course, the 5 S-ratings for speaking proficiency are based on the absolute criterion of the verbal command of an educated native speaker of the language.

The definition of each proficiency level has been worked so as to be applicable to every language; obviously the amount of time and training required to reach a certain level will vary widely from language to language as will the specific linguistic features. Nevertheless, a person with S-3s in both French and Chinese, for example, should have approximately equal linguistic competence in the two languages.

As currently used, all the ratings except the S-5 may be modified by a plus (+), indicating that proficiency substantially exceeds the minimum requirements for the level involved but falls short of those for the next higher level.

DEFINITIONS OF ABSOLUTE RATINGS

ELEMENTARY PROFICIENCY

S-1 Short definition: Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements.

Amplification: Can ask and answer questions on topics very familiar to him; within the scope of his very limited language experience can understand simple questions and statements if they are repeated at a slower rate than normal speech; speaking vocabulary inadequate to express anything but the most elementary needs; errors in pronunciation and grammar are frequent, but can be understood by a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners attempting to speak his language; while topics which are "very familiar" and elementary needs vary considerably from individual to individual, any person at the S-1 level should be able to order a simple meal, ask for a room in a hotel, ask and give street directions, tell time, handle travel requirements and basic courtesy requirements.

S-1+ Exceeds S-1 primarily in vocabulary, and is thus able to meet more complex travel and courtesy requirements. Normally his grammar is so weak that he cannot cope with social conversation. Because he frequently says things he does not intend to say (e.g., he may regularly confuse person, number and tense in verbs.) Pronunciations and comprehension are generally poor. Fluency may vary, but quite voluble speech cannot compensate for all the other serious weaknesses.

LIMITED WORKING PROFICIENCY

S-2 Short definition: Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements.

Amplification: Can handle with confidence but not with facility most social situations including introductions and casual conversations about current events, one's work, family, and autobiographical information, can handle with confidence but not with facility limited on-the-job requirements, e.g., simple instructions to students; simple explanations to co-workers; and descriptions of mechanical equipment; but may need help in handling any complications or difficulties in these situations. Can understand most conversations on non-technical subjects and has a speaking vocabulary sufficient to express himself simply with some circumlocutions (non-technical subjects being understood as topics which require no specialized knowledge); accent, though often quite American, is intelligible; can usually handle elementary construction quite accurately but does not have thorough or confident control of the grammar.

S-2+ Exceeds S-2 primarily in fluency and in either grammar or vocabulary. Blatant deficiencies in one of these latter factors, or general weaknesses in both, usually prevent assignment of an S-3 rating. If a candidate is an S-3+ in vocabulary fluency, and comprehension, and if his grammatical errors do not interfere with understanding, he should be awarded an S-2 not an S-2+

MINIMUM PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

S-3 Short definition: Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to satisfy all normal social and work requirements and handle professional discussions within a special field.

Amplification: Can participate effectively in all general conversation; can discuss particular interest with reasonable ease; comprehension is quite complete for a normal rate of speech; vocabulary is broad enough that he rarely has to grope for a word; accent may be obviously foreign; control of grammar good; errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker.

S-3+ Exceeds an S-3 primarily in vocabulary and in fluency or grammar. The kind of hesitancy which indicates uncertainty or effort in speech will normally prevent assignment of an S-4, though the candidate's way of speaking his native language should be checked in doubtful cases. Frequent grammatical errors must also limit the rating to an S-3+, no matter how excellent the pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

FULL PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

S-4 Short definition: Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs.

Amplification: Can understand and participate in any conversation within the range of his experience with a high degree of fluency and precision of vocabulary, but would rarely be taken for a native speaker; errors in pronunciation and grammar quite rare; can handle informal interpreting from and into the language, but does not necessarily have the training or experience to handle formal interpreting.

S-4+ Should be considered as just short of an S-5. Examiners should always be prepared to justify the awarding of an S-4+ rather than an S-5 by citing specific weaknesses. Reminder: Native-born and educated Americans can conceivably attain S-5. Performance in the test, not biographical information given, is what determines assignment of a rating.

NATIVE OR BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY

S-5 Short definition: Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.

Amplification: Has complete fluency in the language practically equivalent to that of an educated native speaker. To attain this rating usually requires extensive residence in an area where the language is spoken, including having received part of his secondary or higher education in the language.

FACTORS IN SPEAKING PROFICIENCY

APPENDIX B

	S-1	S-2	S-3	S-4	S-5
Pronunciation	Often unintelligible	Usually foreign but rarely unintelligible	Sometimes foreign but always intelligible		Native
Grammar	Accuracy limited to set expressions. almost no control of syntax ; often conveys wrong information	Fair control of most basic syntactic patterns; conveys meaning accurately in simple sentences most of the time	Good control of most basic syntactic patterns; always conveys meaning accurately in reasonably complex sentences	Makes only occasional errors, and these show no pattern of deficiency	Control equal to that of an educated native speaker
Vocabulary	Adequate only for survival, travel, and basic courtesy needs	Adequate for simple social conversation and routine job needs	Adequate for participation in all general conversation and for professional discussions in a special field	Professional and generel vocabulary broad and precise, appropriate to occasion	Equal to vocabulary, of an educated native speaker
Fluency	Except for memorized expressions, every utterance requires enormous obvious effort	Usually hesitant; often forced to silence by limitations of grammar and vocabulary	Rarely hesitant; always able to sustain conversation through circumlocutations	Speech on all professional matters as apparently effortless as in English; always easy to listen to	Speech at least as fluent and effortless as in English on all occasi
Comprehension	May require much repetition, slow rate of speech understands only very simple, short familiar utterances	In general understands non-technical speech directed to him but sometimes misinterprets or needs utterances reworded. Usually cannot follow conversation between native speakers	Understands most of what is said to him; can follow speeches, clear radio broadcasts, and most conversation between native speakers, but not in great detail	Can understand all educated speech in any moderately clear context; occasionally baffled by colloquialisms and regionalisms	Equal to that of the native speaker

APPENDIX 10.1

THE 'FLEXIBLE FRAME'

by

Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

In a local school system or in a university, the typical language teacher has had some training for his job. This training has left him with a repertoire of techniques —— good or bad —— which he at least partially understands and believes in. It has also left him with appreciation for at least one kind of textbook. If the departmental structure within which he is working allows him to use such a textbook, he is happy. If it prevents him, he at least knows which other textbook they 'ought' to prescribe. After a few years of this kind of life, particularly if he has had some success, he begins to develop 'his own method', and may even begin to approach publishers on behalf of his own little monolith.

Most Peace Corps language teachers cannot be like this, and possibly they should not. They are frequently chosen because they are available native speakers, to work in a three-month program for which planning was begun less than six months ago. Their preparation for language teaching consists of having observed their own teachers of English or French in secondary school, and may be modified by a few days of orientation just before the start of the training program. They may feel, sometimes correctly, that they are simply replaceable parts in someone else's machine. Even the most skillfully written 'audio-lingual' or 'microwave' materials will require them to teach in ways that are alien to them, and to adopt a role with which they cannot identify. Teacher-training demonstrations, if brilliantly conducted as they sometimes are, may alleviate matters, and an empathetic language coordinator may be able to mollify their discontent, but the problem remains.

All of this has its effect on reaction to teaching materials. The course that has been put into the hands of the instructors is sometimes only the first or second course ever written for English-speaking learners of that language. It may have been produced in a very short time by an inexperienced team. Even when this is not so —— even when the book has been written by a skilled team with recent, relevant experience —— it very frequently meets rejection.

Its vocabulary is not quite what this group of students needs, or the order in which topics are taken up is wrong, or there are too many grammatical explanations or too few, or the drills are inadequate or overdone, or the dialogs are too stilted or too slangy or in the wrong dialect. For whatever reason, all that has gone before is nothing; nothing will do but to write our own.

Let me emphasize that this reaction is seldom entirely irrational, though as we have seen, it may derive some animus from the emotional hazards of the teaching situation. There is always some factual basis as well. The pity is that, starting from scratch, a language staff with a heavy day-to-day teaching load is seldom able to produce even what its own members want.

One answer, from the modular point of view, is to provide a greater and greater proliferation of 'modules' from which prospective users can make their own selection. This may help, but an array adequate to satisfy 99% of the clients would be prohibitively vast. Another answer would be to provide at least one module which is very open-ended, in which the language coordinator and his staff are given just enough direction to keep from drifting, and to which they can contribute content according to their own judgment. This is the purpose of the 'flexible frame'.

The flexible frame has only two givens: a set of intersecting lines at right angles to one another (Fig. 1) and a format for individual lessons. The format may be microwave, or any other very brief, sharply focussed format.

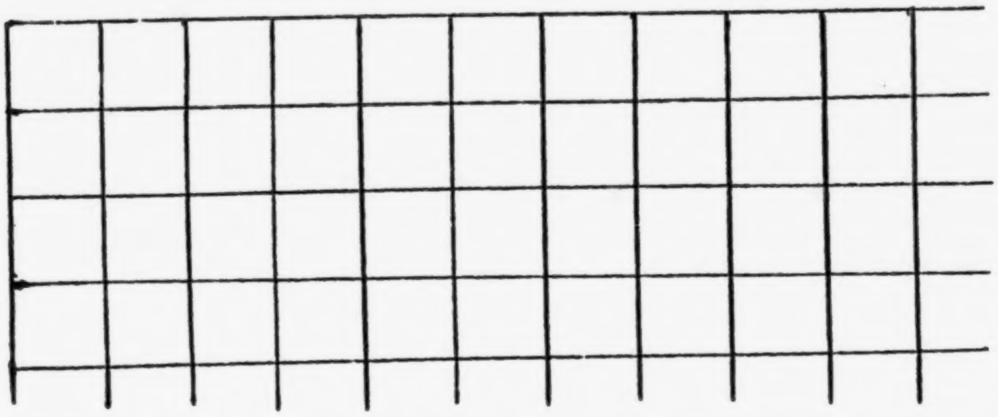
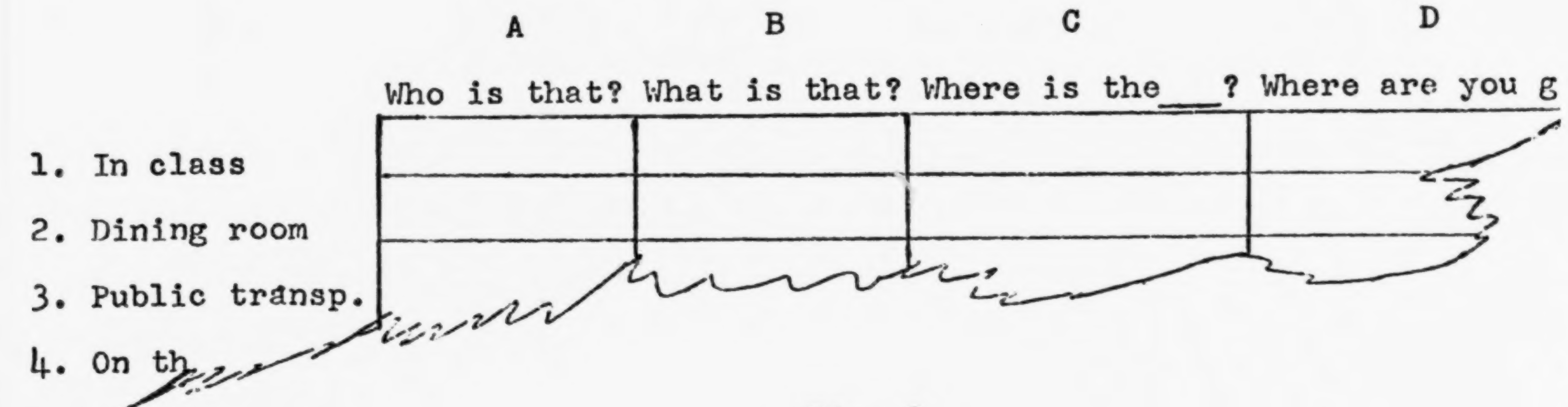


Fig. 1

Notice that the top and left-hand sides of the frame are closed, but the lower and right-hand sides are open.

The first point at which the local staff can contribute is in choosing the first few situations in which their students will need to use the language: 'the dining room', 'the football field', 'the classroom', 'public transportation', etc. Each situation is assigned a row on the frame (Fig. 2).

The next step is to select the questions that the trainees will want to ask and answer in these situations. 'Who is that?' will elicit the names of participants: 'a student', 'a teacher', 'the director', 'a visitor' in the classroom; 'the driver', 'the conductor', 'a passenger' on a bus. Other questions may elicit names of objects, locations of objects, locations and destinations of people, and so on. Each question-type is represented by a column (Fig. 2).



	A Who is that?	B What is that?	C Where is the___?	D Where are you g
1. In class				
2. Dining room				
3. Public transp.				
4. On th				

Fig. 2

The third step is to fill in the boxes one by one. Each stands for at least one microwave cycle or other short lesson. If each is written by a member of the staff and checked with other members, there is a good chance that it will be acceptable to this group of instructors in its dialect and style. Some examples, from Fig. 2, are:

1A. Who is that?
It's a student.
It's a teacher.
It's a visitor.
It's the director.
It's the language coordinator.

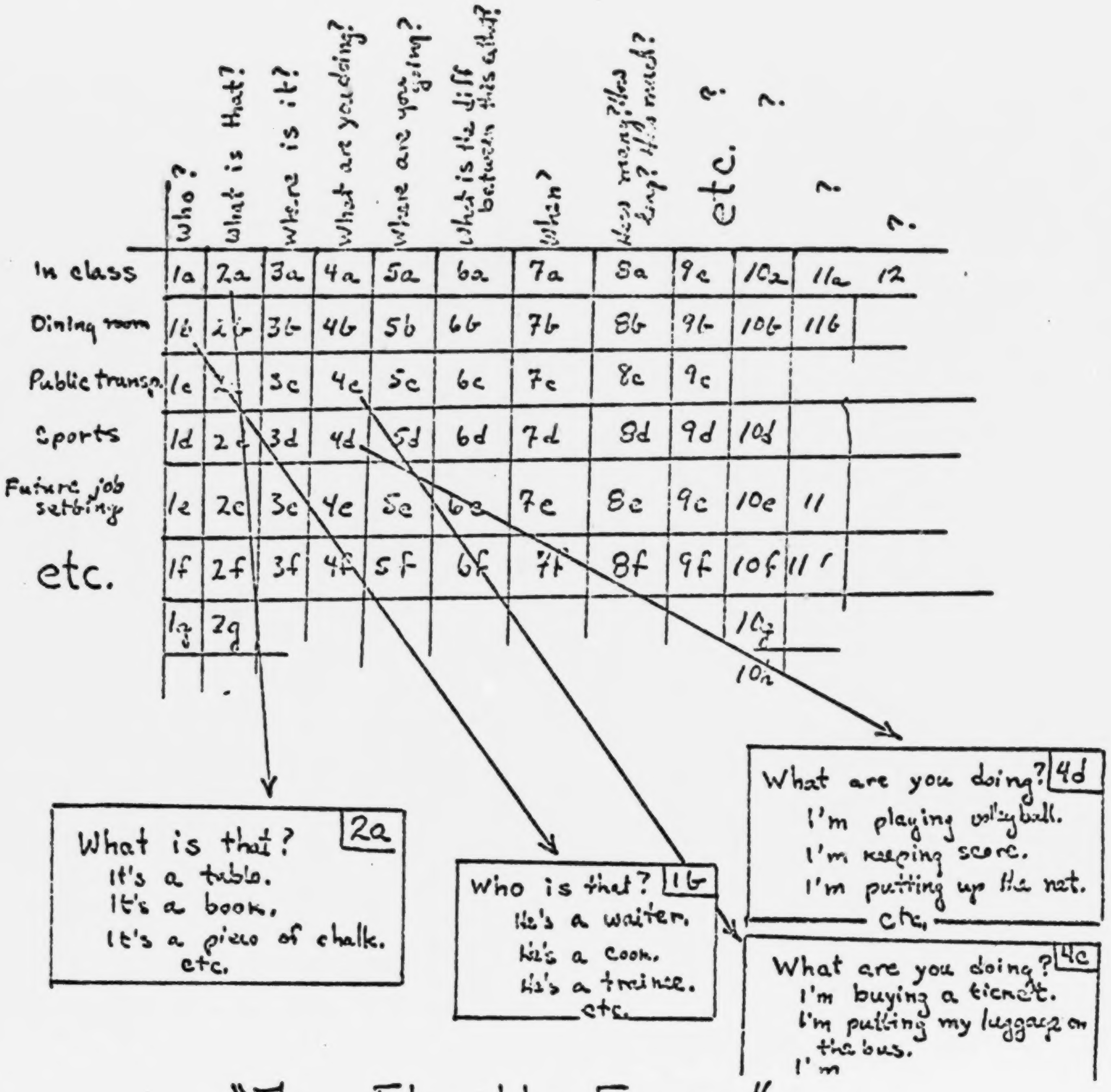
1B. What is that?
It's a chair.
It's a table.
It's a book.
It's a piece of chalk.
etc.

1C. Where is the (book)?
It's on the table.
It's in the drawer.
It's on the shelf.
It's at home.
etc.

2B. What is that?
It's the salt.
It's a fork.
It's a plate.
It's an egg.
etc.

The final set of decisions that the staff makes determines the order in which the lessons will be taught. Working within a single column increases vocabulary while holding grammar constant; working within a single row utilizes some of the same vocabulary, while adding other vocabulary and changing the sentence frames. New difficulties can thus be introduced in a planned way, and one can always see how what one is doing is related to what one has already done. Once the frame is well established, the students themselves may want to participate in these decisions, or even to suggest new topics for the left-hand margin and new question-types for the top.

It should be emphasized that the flexible frame is not an outline for a complete language course. Greetings and courtesy phrases, for example, can hardly fit into it. Some grammatical features would be very difficult to teach in this way. There is no provision for adequate structure drills. But the frame does provide a way of introducing, very early and in an organized way, just that vocabulary that a particular group can use most really and realistically. That is its only purpose.



	who?	What is that?	Where is it?	What are you doing?	Where are you going?	What is the diff between this and that?	When?	How many? How long? How much?	etc. ?	?	?	?
In class	1a	2a	3a	4a	5a	6a	7a	8a	9a	10a	11a	12
Dining room	1b	2b	3b	4b	5b	6b	7b	8b	9b	10b	11b	
Public transp.	1c	[illegible]	3c	4c	5c	6c	7c	8c	9c			
Sports	1d	2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d		
Future job setting	1e	2e	3e	4e	5e	6e	7e	8e	9e	10e	11	
etc.	1f	2f	3f	4f	5f	6f	7f	8f	9f	10f	11	
	1g	2g								10g		
										10h		

What is that? 2a
It's a table.
It's a book.
It's a piece of chalk.
etc.

Who is that? 1b
He's a waiter.
He's a cook.
He's a trainee.
etc.

What are you doing? 4d
I'm playing volleyball.
I'm keeping score.
I'm putting up the net.
etc.

What are you doing? 4c
I'm buying a ticket.
I'm putting my luggage on the bus.
I'm

"The Flexible Frame"

Talk by EWS before PC language coordinators.
10 March 1968

Foreign Service Institute
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

1. Draw a grid with the right and bottom edges open.

2. Decide on the situations that yo want to use. List on the left margi

3. Decide on the question types. List across top.

4. Decide which 6 or 8 boxes you want to use first (or next). Start anywhere and move in any direction.

5. Write for each box its question and a number of useful answers. (Boxes 1b, 2a, 4c, 4d have been started on this sheet as examples.)

6. Plan how to get the meanings of these Q and A across using little or none of the students' native language.

7. Try to anticipate pronunciation problems and decide on how to deal with them.

8. Teach each box as if it were a microwave cycle. Use enough answers so that the initial presentation of a box will take 15-30 minutes. Do some RM* with each box. Spend the rest of each period reintroducing and recombining old material.

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*RM "Routine Manipulations". For all languages, RM will include yes-no questions, negatives, and imperatives. For individual languages, there may be one or two other RM that should be practiced with each box. Defer other grammar points until later.

APPENDIX 10.2

'MICROWAVE'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

'Microwave' is one method, or format, for writing language lessons. By extension, the term may be applied to a module which consists principally of lessons written in this format. It emphatically is not a method for writing complete language courses. Still less is it a method for teaching languages.

A lesson written in the 'microwave' format has usually been called a 'cycle', although I would be happy to hear the last of both terms. A 'cycle' typically is based on one utterance in the language —— most commonly a question. It also contains from four to eight potential answers or other rejoinders to its basic utterance. If the basic utterance and the rejoinders are well chosen, they can lead to almost immediate real or realistic conversation in class, and are very likely to find early use in real life outside of class. For best results, all sentences should be fairly short (few with more than 12 syllables), and also fairly simple in their structure. A cycle is easier to learn if all of its rejoinders follow a single grammatical pattern. The writer of the cycle may in fact use ( ) to show those nouns, verbs or adjectives that may be replaced by other words so as to provide still more rejoinders without changing the structure of the sentence. When the users (instructors or students) make these replacements, the cycle is said to have been 'relexicalized'.

From this brief description it should be obvious that cycles have potentially very high ratings in usability (Assumption I), responsiveness (Assumption III), and user responsibility (Assumption IV). Just how much of this potential is realized for any one program depends on three factors: (1) the internal structure of the individual cycles, (2) the relationship of the cycles to each other, (3) the degree to which the content is pertinent to the interests of the students. The same three factors of course affect the success of textbooks other than microwave. But while an inappropriate microwave course is no more unmotivating than an inappropriate course of some other kind, an appropriate microwave course can go far beyond most other formats at least for young American adults who are about to go abroad.

Cycles have been written in three kinds of setting: (1) by individuals in their own private language study with an instructor, (2) by Peace Corps language coordinators who are providing lessons for current programs, (3) by materials developers who are trying to produce texts that will be useful in a number of future programs. What is true in one of these three settings is not necessarily true in the others. Specifically, individuals may make occasional use of cycles at either the elementary or the intermediate level, but it is doubtful whether classes ought to use them beyond the introductory stage (i.e. the first 150 hours). Again, sequencing of cycles, which will be discussed below, is of very little importance to the individual user, of greater importance in *ad hoc* materials for ongoing programs, and of greatest importance —— and difficulty —— in preparing a permanent textbook.

The writing of individual cycles can best be discussed by reference to a number of examples:

Example A (English)

Basic utterance: 'What is your name?'

Potential rejoinders: My name is Bill Williams.
My name is Clyde Bonney.
My name is Ethel Redd.
My name is Carol Singer.

Summary: A. 'What is your name?'
B. 'My name is (Bill Williams).'

Comments on Example A: The subject matter —— getting people's names —— is well chosen if the cycle is used by trainees who are still getting acquainted with each other. It is also appropriate, but less so, for groups that have passed that stage, since any trainee can look forward to having to get people's names at some time in the future.

The length of the sentences (4-7 syllables) is ideal. The names that are chosen for use in presenting the cycle may be chosen either for their phonetic problems or for their lack of phonetic problems. After initial presentation of the cycle, names of real people should be used at the point indicated by (   ).

This cycle has a serious flaw, and it is the kind of flaw that writers of language lessons most easily overlook. The short, uncomplicated sentences and the usefulness of the subject matter should not blind us to the fact that the question simply is not idiomatic. 'What is your name?' is used only to children and to inferiors. If I want to know the name of another adult, I must find it out in some other way. I may volunteer the information that 'My name is ___________' and expect him to reciprocate.

Example B (French)

Bonjour Monsieur.	Good morning.(said to a man)
Bonjour Mademoiselle.	Good morning.(said to an unmarried woman)
Bonjour Madame.	Good morning.(said to a married woman)
Comment allez-vous?	How are you?
Bien, merci. Et vous?	Well, thanks. And you?
Très bien, merci. Et vous?	Very well, thanks. And you?
Pas mal, merci. Et vous?	Not bad, thanks. And you?

Ça va bien, merci. Et vous?	Fine, thanks. And you?
Je vais bien, merci. Et vous?	I'm fine, thanks. And you?
Au revoir.	Good bye.
Aur revoir, à bientôt.	Good bye, until later.

Summary: A. Bonjour (Monsieur).

B. Bonjour (Mademoiselle).
Comment allez-vous?

A. (Très bien), merci. Et vous?

B. (Ça va bien), merci.

A. Au revoir.

B. Au revoir, à bientôt.

Comments on Example B:

The sentences are of suitable length. The subject matter is appropriate for any group, and the sentences are all idiomatic. As shown in the summary, (   ) can be filled in various ways so as to make several different conversations.

Example B however departs from strict microwave format in three ways: (1) It is really a composite of three cycles, in which the basic utterances are respectively 'Bonjour, (Monsieur),' 'Comment allez-vous?' and 'Au revoir.' (2) The rejoinders to 'Comment allez-vous' are practically synonymous with one another. (3) There is only one rejoinder for the last basic utterance.

Example C (Swahili):

Basic utterance:

Unatoka mji gani?	What city are you from?
Unatoka jimbo gani?	What state are you from?
Unatoka nchi gani?	What country are you from?

Potential rejoinders:

Ninatoka mji wa Topeka.	I'm from (the city of) Topeka.
Ninatoka jimbo la Kansas.	I'm from (the state of) Kansas.
Ninatoka nchi ya Amerika.	I'm from (the country of) America.

Summary:

Unatoka (mji) gani?

Ninatoka (mji) (w)a (Topeka).

Comments on Example C:

Suitability of subject matter is as for Example A.

Length and complexity of sentences are still within the ability of beginners. This cycle provides a fairly realistic way of learning to choose among *wa*, *la*, *ya* in agreement with *mji*, *jimbo*, *nchi*.

Example D (French):

Basic utterances:

Qu'est-ce que vous faites à 6 heures du matin?	What do you do at 6a.m.?
Et après qu'est-ce que vous faites?	And then what do you do?

Potential rejoinders:

Je me réveille.	I wake up.
Après je me lève.	Then I get up.
Après je me lave.	Then I wash.
Après je m'habille.	Then I get dressed.
Après je vais au réfectoire.	Then I go to the dining hall.
Après je prends un casse-croûte.	Then I have a bit to eat.
Après j'étudie le français.	Then I study French.

Comments on Example D:

Experienced language teachers will recognize their ancient and trusty friend, the action chain, disguised here as a microwave cycle. The subject matter is appropriate for almost any group, although the questions themselves are seldom asked outside of a language classroom. The questions would have been a bit long for absolute beginners; but this was No. 68 in a series of cycles.

Example E (Bini):

M-1

ɔ̀gbùgbò	ɔ̀gbùgbò ì khin	farmer	I am a farmer.
ɔ̀gm'èbè	ɔ̀gm'èbè ì khin	writer	I am a writer.
ɔ̀dòɛ̀kì	ɔ̀dòɛ̀kì ì khin	trader	I am a trader.
ɔ̀gb'ètò	ɔ̀gb'ètò ì khin	barber	I am a barber.

M-2

ìŋwìnnà	d' ìŋwìnnà n' ù ŋwìnnǎ?	work	What (kind of) work do you do?
de	d' ìŋwìnnà n' ù yě?	what	What (kind of) work are you in?

C-1

A: d'ìŋwìnnà n' ù ŋwìnnǎ?	A: What is your occupation?
B: ɔ̀gbùgbò ì khin.	B: I am a farmer.

C-2

A: ɔ̀dòɛ̀kì ù khin r̄à?	A: Are you a trader?
B: ɛò, ɛ̀'rᶠ ɔ̀dòɛ̀kì ì khin.	B: No, I am not a trader.
ɔ̀gm'èbè ì khin.	I am a writer.

Comments on Example E:

This is an excellent instance of the standard microwave format. The 'M phase' concentrates on mimicry, manipulation, meaning and memorization. It is divided into M-1 (the potential rejoinders) and M-2 (the basic utterances(s)). The 'C phase' goes on to connected conversation and real or realistic communication. The C phase has sometimes been slighted by writers. Sometimes they have contented themselves with a mere summary of the M phase. A good C phase should bring in material from previous cycles (e.g. the yes-no question in C-2 of Example E) and should stimulate the imagination of teacher and student so as to produce varied and lively conversations.

The key word in each sentence is reproduced in the left-hand column.

Example F (Hindi):

पाठ ८

मेरा नाम लाल है।
मेरा नाम वर्मा है।

मेरी उमर बीस साल है।
मेरी उमर तीस साल है।

आपका नाम क्या है?
आपकी उमर क्या है?

आपका नाम क्या है?
मेरा नाम मोहन है।

और आपकी उमर?
बीस साल है।

मेरा नाम	my name	238
आप का नाम	your name	239
मेरी उमर	my age	240
आप की उमर	your age	241

Use your own name and age. 242

With the noun नाम my is expressed by मेरा 243
and your by आप का. 244

With the noun उमर, मेरी and आप की are used. 245

उमर is not a sensitive topic in Hindi. 246

Clichés 247

अच्छा	O.K.	248
तो	well... (use this when hesitating)	249
इजाज़त दीजिये।	Please excuse me. (when leaving)	250
फिर आइये।	Please come again.	251
माफ़ कीजिये।	Pardon me.	252
समझाइये।	Please explain.	253

Continue accumulating useful words and phrases like these-- 254
conversation openers, fillers, and closers. Vary the greeting 255
ritual (p. 9) with other polite phrases. Different greetings 256
are preferred by people of different religious and regional 257
backgrounds. 258

Comments on Example F:

In this book, the student never sees Hindi in roman transcription. The subject matter is name and age. Simple but helpful grammatical comments are included. The section on 'cliches' is not in microwave format. Breaking the succession of cycles in some way such as this is highly desirable. Also desirable is the paragraph at the very end, which nudges the student toward greater independence in the study and use of the language.

In Examples A-F our interest has been in the writing of the cycles. Some procedures for using them will be discussed with reference to Example G.

Example G (Swahili):

M-1

A. Repeat each utterance after the instructor.

B. Give the complete sentence that includes the cue word that the instructor will give you.

C. Be sure you understand the meaning of each sentence.

Daudi Mnambi	Jina langu Daudi Mnambi.	Daudi Mnambi	My name is Daudi Mnambi.
Ann Fine	Jina langu Ann Fine.	Ann Fine	My name is Ann Fine.
John Kanyati	Jina langu John Kanyati.	John Kanyati	My name is John Kanyati.

Melanie Phillips	Jina langu Melanie Phillips.	Melanie Phillips	My name is Melanie Phillips.

M-2

Proceed as for M-1.

nani?	Jina lako nani?	what?	What is your name?
lako	Jina lako nani?	your	What is your name?

C-1

The instructor will give you a question and supply you with the formula for the answer. Add your own name to the sentence and give the answer.

A: Jina lako nani?	A: What is your name?
B: Jina langu(Phillips).	B: My name is(Phillips).

Then ask and answer this question with the other students in the class, using your own name.

Apply this activity to a real situation outside of class by asking the names of other students who are also working on Swahili. Do this at least 5 times within the next 24 hours. The thoroughness and imagination with which you perform these outside assignments will have a major effect on how much you learn.

TO THE STUDENT:

The noun /jina/ means 'name'.
The possessive stem /ako/ means 'your' (sg.). The /l/ in /lako/ is a prefix that agrees with /jina/. The matter of agreement will be discussed later in more detail. The same prefix /l/ occurs in this cycle with the possessive stem /angu/ 'my'.

The interrogative word /nani/ means 'who?'

The literal meaning of the whole sentence /Jina lako nani?/ is then 'Name your, who?' There is no word in this sentence that corresponds to English 'is'.

Comments on Example G:

The material in boxes is for the student, and is given only with the first cycle in the book. The following directions for the instructor are given in the introduction. Translations in ( ) are for the benefit of readers of this article.

Ways of conducting the M phase in each cycle:

1. Mimicry of the teacher's pronunciation.

   a. Say aloud each of the complete sentences. Have the students repeat them after you. Try to talk at a slow normal rate of speed.

   b. When you hear a wrong pronunciation, correct it by giving the right pronunciation again. For example, if the student says /Manambi/ in Cycle 1, simply say /Mnambi/, and have him say it again after you. Or say 'Si /Manambi/, ni /Mnambi/' and have him repeat the correct pronunciation.

   When all the students can pronounce all the words and sentences well, teach them the meanings:

2. Meanings of the sentences.

   a. Have the students repeat a whole sentence after you. Then give the English, and have them give the Swahili. For example:

      T: Jina lako nani? (What is your name?)
      S: Jina lako nani?

      T: What's your name?
      S: Jina lako nani?

b. Give sentences at random in either English or Swahili. Have the students translate into the other language. Do this *only long enough* so that you are sure the students know the meanings of the Swahili sentences. It should not be necessary to spend more than about three minutes on this.

Some teachers like to avoid all use of the student's mother tongue. Certainly it is desirable to plan the cycle so that meanings are conveyed initially so that little or no English is used.

When the students know the meanings, go on to manipulation of the grammatical structures of the sentences:

3. Manipulation of the structures. Give the students a key word from the left-hand column. The students reply with the corresponding complete sentence.

In some cycles, the manipulation involved is only nominal:

T: Jina langu Daudi Mnambi. (My name is D_____.)

S: Jina langu Daudi Mnambi.

T: Ann Fine.

S: Jina langu Ann Fine.

T: John Kanyati.

S: Jina langu John Kanyati.

In this example, from Cycle 1, the student has only to remember and reproduce the constant part of the sentence over and over.

Manipulation may also require the student to make grammatical choices. So, in Cycle 12:

T: Ninatoka mji wa Baltimore. (I'm from the city of Baltimore.)

S: Ninatoka mji wa Baltimore.

T: Maryland.

S: Ninatoka jimbo la Maryland. (I'm from the state of Maryland.)

T: Amerika.

S: Ninatoka nchi ya Amerika.

The student must choose here among /wa/, /la/, and /ya/.

When the students are able to perform well all of the activities outlined above, they are ready for the C phase. Experience has shown that instructors working with classes of 5 - 10 students can complete the average M phase in 10 - 20 minutes.

Ways of conducting the C phase of each cycle. The C phase consists of one or more short conversations. For each conversation:

a. Take the part of the first speaker in the conversation, and have students take turns as the second speaker.

b. Let students take both parts in the conversation.

It is important in the C phase to talk about people, places and things that are real, and that are of interest to the students. Substitute other words for the ones that are in ( ). For example, C-1 of Cycle 18 is:

A:	Kitabu h(iki) ni (ch)angu.	(This book is mine.)
	H(icho) ni (ch)a nani?	(Whose is that one?)
B:	Ni (ch)a Bw. (Fulani).	(It is Mr.____'s.)

This stands of course for the conversation:

A: Kitabu hiki ni changu.

Hicho ni cha nani?

B: Ni cha Bw. Fulani.

but it also stands for many other conversations, among which are:

A:	Vitabu hivi ni vyangu.	(These books are mine.)
	Hivyo ni vya nani?	(Whose are those?)
B:	Ni vya Bw. Smith.	(They are Mr. Smith's.)
A:	Nguo hizi ni zangu.	(These clothes are mine.)
	Hizo ni za nani?	(Whose are those?)
B:	Ni za Bw. Mnambi.	(They are Mr. Mnambi's.)

It does not, however, allow for:

A:	Hiki ni kitabu chako?	(Is this your book?)

or for:

A:	Kitabu hiki ni kizuri.	(This book is pretty.)

In many cycles, the teacher or the students may feel it worthwhile to introduce extra vocabulary. They are encouraged to do so, being sure that:

a. the new words are of special relevance to the interests of the students, and

b. the new words fit into the C phase at one of the points enclosed in ( ).

As soon as the students are able to converse easily, correctly, and informatively using the material in the C phase, the cycle has ended. Go on to the next cycle, or review an earlier cycle. Experience has shown that the average amount of time spent on each of the cycles is about one hour. This includes the first presentation of the cycle, and one or two reviews of it on later days. The first time through a new cycle therefore takes no more than 20 - 30 minutes.

As much as possible, have the students act as well as talk: pointing to a map, standing up to talk, and other simple activities add meaning to the words. Activities also help to keep the students from getting tired and restless.

All that has been said about 'microwave' up to this point applies to single 'cycles'. Certain problems arise when one tries to produce a connected series of cycles. Most obvious is the **conflict** between structure and content. Each of these realms has its own hierarchy, its own demands for continuity and completeness of coverage. Intertwining the strands of phonology, grammar and content vocabulary so as to produce a viable course requires much patience, some skill, and a little luck. The same is of course true in the writing of any series of language lessons. 'Microwave', in fact, because each cycle is very short and concentrates on only one point, is perhaps more manageable in this respect than some other formats are. One way of sequencing the early cycles in a series is called the 'flexible frame'.

'THE MICROWAVE PRINCIPLE'

At the beginning of this fascicle, we said that 'microwave' is a format. As others have written and conducted courses that were supposedly based on this format, however, they have modified it in a number of interesting ways. We have already seen (Examples A-G) some of the variations that are possible. From this experience has emerged what might be called the 'microwave principle': manipulation of a very small amount of new material, followed by immediate (real or realistic) use of that material.

CASE STUDY H 497

SPANISH 498

The materials prepared for Spanish in the summer of 1968 provide an unusually full spectrum of variations on the microwave principle, all within a language that is widely known to speakers of English. This course consisted of two series of cycles. First was a series of general-purpose cycles, and then a series that had to do specifically with the work of an urban planner or community developer. As these materials are reproduced here, English translations in ( ) have been added.

Spanish Cycle 5

M-1

yo	Yo hago mi trabajo.	(I	I am doing my work.)
tú	Tú haces tu trabajo.	(you	You are doing your work.)
Juan	Juan hace su trabajo.	(John	John is doing his work.)

M-2

yo	Qué hago yo?	(I	What am I doing?)
tu	Qué haces tu?	(you	What are you doing?)
Juan	Qué hace Juan?	(John	What is John doing?)

C-1

Qué (hace)(Juan)?	(What is John doing?)
(Juan)(hace)(su) trabajo.	(John is doing his work.)

This cycle stands near the beginning of the basic series, and it exemplifies the 'classic' microwave format. The three sentences of the M-1 phase are all answers to the questions in M-2. Within both M-1 and M-2, the sentences are related to one another as lines in a short substitution-correlation drill: changing one of the cue words yo, tu, Juan requires a change in the ending of the verb. If the cycle is viewed in isolation, its only weakness is that its subject matter is rather flat, and it does not specifically direct the user to undertake comparable manipulation of other, more demonstrable verbs.

Spanish Cycle 67

M-1

Quiero que **le** digas lo que te pasa.	(I want you to tell him what is happening to you.)
Quiero que vayas a Chile.	(I want you to go to Chile.)
Quiero ir a Chile.	(I want to go to Chile.)

M-2

Qué quieres que diga al medico?	(What do you want me to tell the doctor?)
Adónde quieres que vaya?	(Where do you want me to go?)
Adónde quieres ir?	(Where do you want to go?)

C-1

Qué quieres que diga al médico?	(What do you want me to tell the doctor?)
Quiero que le digas lo que te pasa.	(I want you to tell him what is happening to you.)
Adónde quieres que vaya?	(Where do you want me to go?)
Quiero que vayas a Chile.	(I want you to go to Chile.)
Adónde quieres ir?	(Where do you want to go?)
Quiero ir a Chile.	(I want to go to Chile.)

This is a composite of three cycles, each of which has been collapsed into a single statement in M-1 and a single question in M-2. The sentences illustrate the difference between infinitive (used when the subject of the second verb is the same as the subject of querer 'to want') and the subjunctive (used when the subjects of the two verbs are different). Although the printed materials do not say so, the teacher is presumably expected to go on and lead the students to practice this contrast in (real or realistic) communication.

Spanish Cycle 26 (CD)

M-1

luz eléctrica	Hay que planificar el sistema de luz eléctrica.	(It's necessary to plan the electric light system.)
servicio de	Hay que planificar el servicio de agua.	(It's necessary to plan the water service.)
sistema de alcantarillado	Hay que planificar el sistema de alcantarillado.	(It's necessary to plan the sewage system.)
sistemas de circulación	Hay que planificar los sistemas de circulación.	(It's necessary to plan the traffic patterns.)

M-2

peatones	El sistema de peatones es deficiente.	(The pedestrian system is deficient.)
vehículos	El sistema de circulación de vehículos es deficiente.	(The traffic pattern is deficient.)
aceras	Las aceras para los peatones no están bien asfaltadas.	(The sidewalks are not well paved.)

calles	Las calles para los vehículos no están asfaltadas.	(The streets are not paved.)

C-1

¿Quiere usted mejorar el sistema de circulación?	(Do you want to improve the traffic pattern?)
1. Sí, quiero mejorarlo.	(Yes, I want to improve it.)
2. No, no quiero mejorarlo.	(No, I don't want to improve it.)
¿Por qué quiere mejorarlo?	(Why do you want to improve it?)
Porque no está bien planificado.	(Because it is not well planned.)
¿Por qué no quiere mejorarlo?	(Why don't you want to improve it?)
Porque está bien planificado.	(Because it is well planned.)

This cycle displays much greater departure from the usual microwave format. In M-1 all of the sentences are lines in a single substitution table based on the frame Hay que planificar ______. M-2 contains two lines based on ____ es deficiente and two lines based on _____ no están(bien)asfaltadas. The sentences of M-1 are not rejoinders or answers to the sentences of M-2. C-1 contains some of the vocabulary of M-1 and M-2, but the sentence patterns are in general quite different. One must again assume that the teacher, either on his own initiative or as a result of staff briefing sessions, will fill in some of the details. One must also remember that since this cycle is well into the second series, students will have additional resources on which to draw.

Cycle 27 (CD)

M-1

sistemas básicos	(basic systems)
Los sistemas básicos incluyen el alcantarillado.	(The basic systems include sewage.)
Los sistemas básicos incluyen el servicio de agua.	(The basic systems include the water service.)
Los sistemas básicos incluyen las calles y las aceras.	(The basic systems include the streets and sidewalks.)
Las calles y las aceras son sistemas de circulación.	(The streets and sidewalks are traffic systems.)

M-2

responder	(to answer)
Los sistemas básicos responden a las necessidades básicas de la comunidad.	(The basic systems meet the basic needs of the community.)

C-1

¿Ha estudiado usted los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad?	(Have you studied the basic systems of this community?)
1. Si, los he estudiado.	(1. Yes, I have studied them.)
2. No, no los he estudiado.	(2. No, I haven't studied them.)

¿Son los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad deficientes?	(Are the basic systems of this community deficient?)
1. Si, los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad son deficientes.	(1. Yes, the basic systems of this community are deficient.)
2. No, los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad no son deficientes.	(2. No, the basic systems of this community are not deficient.)
¡Ah! La planificación de esta comunidad ha incluido buenos sistemas básicos, ¿ verdad?	(Ah! The planning of this community included good basic systems, didn't it?)
Si, es una buena planificación.	(Yes, it is good planning.)
Entonces usted no propone mejoras de esos sistemas básicos, ¿verdad?	(Then you didn't suggest any improvements in these basic systems, do you?)
1. No, yo no propongo mejora.	(1. No, I didn't suggest any improvements.)
2. Si, yo propongo mejoras(en el alcantarillado).	(2. Yes, I propose improvements (in the sewage system).)

(Then follows a note in English to the student, with information about the various forms of some verbs used in this cycle.)

Here, as in the preceding cycle, C-1 suggests ways of starting conversations; M-1 and M-2 provide material which may be worked into those conversations. The reason for the distinction between M-1 and M-2 in this cycle is not obvious to me.

Cycle 28 (CD)

M-1

La meta del urbanista no es sólo la buena planificación física sino consideraciones de estetica urbana.	(The goal of the city planner is not only good physical planning, but also considerations of urban esthetics.)

M-2

Sí, hay que incluir en la planificación urbana un sentido estético.	(Yes, it is necessary to include an esthetic sense in urban planning.)

C-1

¿Es la estética urbana una consideración en la planificación?	(Is beauty a consideration in planning?)
1. Si, es una consideración importante.	(Yes, it is an important consideration.)
2. No, no es una consideración importante.	(No, it is not an important consideration.)

TO THE TEACHER:

After the students have learned the essential vocabulary of this cycle, have them — under your control and direction — hold a discussion among themselves, something like a stage play, in which they treat the physical problems of community planning and the esthetic problems which must also be considered.

This, the last of three consecutive cycles quoted here, is still less fully developed than the two that preceded it. It nevertheless illustrates the microwave principle: brief, intensive practice followed by immediate use.

The same set of Spanish materials contained some cycles that were labelled 'extraordinary.' In some of these, M-1 was a short dialog; M-2 consisted of questions over the dialog; C-1 was questions and answers over the same dialog. The principle still remains, although the format has been completely transmuted.

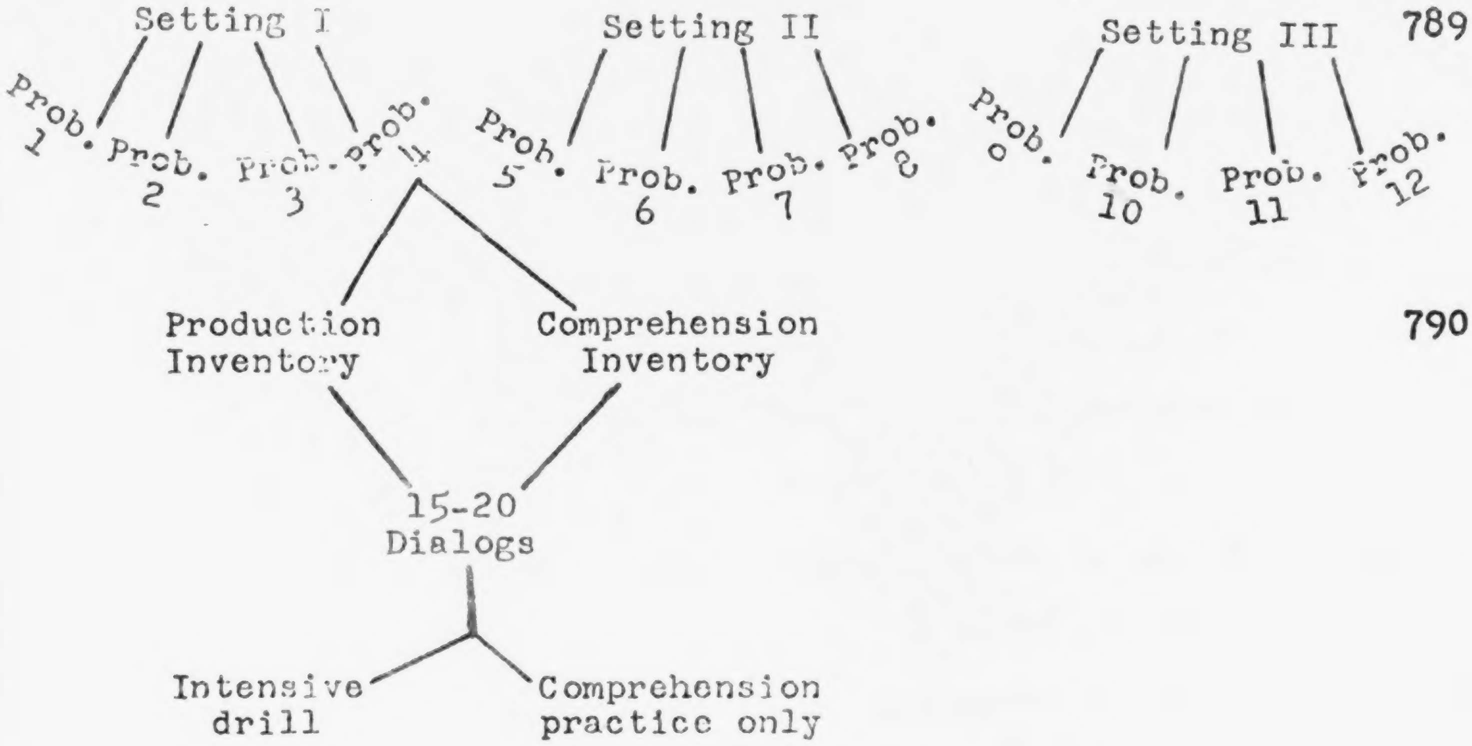
CASE STUDY I 756

ENGLISH 757

The microwave principle may appear in formats that are quite different from what, with almost a straight face, we may call 'the classical microwave cycle' of M-1, M-2, C-1, C-2. In 1969, FSI was asked to conduct 4-week courses in four languages for Marines who were to serve as security guards in embassies overseas. The content of this course was to be much more sharply defined than is usually practicable for the training of other kinds of trainee. Other than the usual greetings and general phrases, the material was related to only three settings: 'At the Door,' 'On the Telephone,' and 'Dealing with the Clean-up Crew'. Within each of these settings, four problems were selected; in the first setting the problems were 'Checking Identification', 'Giving Information about Embassy Hours', 'Receiving or Refusing a Package', and 'Persons Seeking Asylum'. For each of these problems, two lists of sentences were established: a 'Production Inventory' which the trainees would be expected to memorize, and a 'Comprehension Inventory' which they would be expected to understand but not memorize. Utilizing these two inventories, a series of 15-20 short (4-6 line) dialogs were next written.

Each sentence appeared in from 3-11 different dialogs. A few of the dialogs for each problem would later be used for intensive drill in class, but most would serve as comprehension practice in the tape lab.

A diagram may clarify the relations among the raw materials of this course.


Setting I
Setting II
Setting III
Prob. 1
Prob. 2
Prob. 3
Prob. 4
Prob. 5
Prob. 6
Prob. 7
Prob. 8
Prob. 9
Prob. 10
Prob. 11
Prob. 12
Production Inventory
Comprehension Inventory
15-20 Dialogs
Intensive drill
Comprehension practice only

Each problem is developed as shown in the diagram for Problem 4. The inventories and a few sample dialogs for Problem 1 were as follows:

SETTING: At the door.

PROBLEM: Checking identification.

PRODUCTION INVENTORY:

May I see your (pass, identification)? (18)
This pass is (not) valid. (7)
This pass has expired. (8)
You may (not) enter (without (pass, identification, I.D. card)) (25)
I'm sorry. (10)
Thank you (sir, madame). (5)
Everything is in order. (4)
Do you have (other) (pass, identification, I.D. card)? (2)

COMPREHENSION INVENTORY:

Here is my (pass, identification, I.D. card). (15)
Is this (pass, identification, I.D. card) valid? (3)
I (don't) have (other) (pass, identification, I.D. card). (9)
Would you like to see (other) (pass, identification, I.D. card)? (3)
This is the only (pass, identification, I.D. card) I have. (5)
Do I need (pass, identification, I.D. card) at this hour? (2)
Is this (sufficient, all right)? (3)
May I enter? (4)
May I go in for just a minute? (6)

1. M. May I see your pass, sir?

L. Here it is. Is it valid?

M. Yes, this pass is valid.

You may enter.

L. Thank you.

2. M. May I see your pass, sir?

L. I don't have a pass.

M. You may not enter without a pass.

L. I have some other identification here.

M. I'm sorry. You may not enter without a pass.

3. L. Would you like to see my pass? 825
M. Thank you, sir. 826
You may enter. 827
L. (It's a nice evening.) 828
M. Yes, sir. 829

4. L. Would you like to see my pass? 830
M. Thank you, sir. 831
I'm sorry. 832
This pass is not valid. 833
L. But it is the only pass I have. 834
*Can't you let me in just this time? 835
M. I'm sorry. You may not enter without a pass. 836

5. M. May I see your pass? 837
L. I'm sorry. I don't have a pass. 838
M. May I see your identification? 839
L. Will this do? 840
M Thank you, sir. You may enter. 841

6. L. This is the only pass I have. Is it valid? 842
M. I'm sorry. This pass is not valid. 843
May I see your identification? 844
L. Here it is. 845
M. Thank you, sir. 846
L. I have some other identification also. 847
M. Thank you, sir. You may enter. 848

The question, of course, is how to use this mass of material. The microwave principle was applied to the initial presentation of the production inventory. The first half of the treatment of Problem 1 was the following:

Lesson 1, Section 1

PROPS: Two different passes, two different I.D. cards, two other forms of identification, a "booby prize".

PRONUNCIATION: May I see your pass?
May I see your identification?
May I see your I.D. card?

MEANING: Continue minicry. After each sentence is mimicked, teacher holds up what was asked for.

USE: Individual students ask for one of the objects. If they are easily intelligible, teacher holds up the one asked for. If not, holds up booby prize (an autographed picture of Alfred E. Neumann?)

Individual students continue to ask for the objects. Other students respond.

Lesson 1, Section 2

PROPS: As above.

PRONUNCIATION: This pass is valid.
This pass is not valid.

MEANING: One of the passes is defined as valid, the other as not valid. Continue mimicry. After each sentence is mimicked, teacher holds up the appropriate pass. Do same with I.D. cards and other identification.

USE: Individual students rule on the validity of the passes held up by the teacher.

Individual students rule on the validity of passes offered by other students.

CUMULATION: Student asks to see pass, then comments on its validity.

Student asks to see I.D. card, then comments on its validity.

Student asks to see other identification, then comments on its validity.

Lesson 1, Section 3

PROPS: Passes with various expiration dates.

PRONUNCIATION: This pass has expired.
This pass is valid.

MEANING: Passes in two stacks: expired and valid.. After each sentence is mimicked, teacher holds up an appropriate pass.

USE: Students are shown a pass. They reply either 'This pass has expired' or 'This pass is valid.'

CUMULATION: Three kinds of passes. One that was never valid, one that was formerly valid but now expired, and one that is valid. Student asks to see pass, then comments 'This pass is not valid,' 'This pass has expired,' or 'This pass is valid.'

Lesson 1, Section 4

PROPS: As above, plus pictures of men and picture of women.

PRONUNCIATION: Thank you, sir.
Thank you, madame.
You may enter.

MEANING: Students take turns holding up a valid pass. Repeat after instructor: 'You may enter'.

Same, except students repeat after instructor 'Thank you (sir, madame). You may enter.'

'MICROTEXTS'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

A nineteenth century German, Gabelentz, observed that for elementary instruction the best language teacher is 'a talkative person with a limited range of ideas'. If a student meets too many words and too many new grammar structures too soon, he is overwhelmed. Yet students are motivated best by genuine use of the new language, and genuine use, by definition, can place no restrictions on vocabulary or on grammar. Gabelentz handled this dilemma by the way he chose teachers. How can his formula be applied to the development of materials?

First of all, we can notice and exploit the fact that some parts of life are more repetitious than others. The principal step is to select short, highly similar texts that have occurred distant from each other in space or time, and concentrate them into some form that is convenient for the student. Then, depending on circumstances, we may go on to arrange the texts in order of relative difficulty. We may even prepare drills and exercises to accompany them. The topic of this section, however, is selection.

Monolog texts are readily available either from printed or from non-printed sources. A graduate student who wants to learn to read in the field of chemistry can use short definitions of the elements, taken from a dictionary or a one-volume encyclopedia. A set of weather forecasts for different parts of the country on the same day, or for a single area on different days, provides much realistic practice within a very narrow range of structure and vocabulary. In newspapers, brief notices about meetings consist mostly of time, place, name of organization, and purpose of meeting. Comparable formulae exist for stories about travel of government officials, or automobile accidents, or weddings, or labor disputes. Or the same news story may be taken from several newspapers or several radio stations, and may be followed in this way for several consecutive days. In addition to realistic language practice, all of these texts provide a certain amount of information about the country in which the language is spoken. These then are the basis for what we may call 'microtexts'. Like 'microwaves', they present realistic material in very small doses, and in a format which does not overwhelm the student. First he masters the material from a mechanical point of view, and then he goes on immediately to use the same material responsibly and communicatively.

Once a group of prospective microtexts have been assembled, the next step is to pick out the ones that will be easiest to use. There are four criteria, some of which are easier to apply than others:

1. Is the text of suitable length? Students should be able to comprehend it, and practice it according to whatever format you are following, within 15-45 minutes. In the early stages, this may mean that a printed text will be 50 words or less in length, or that an oral text will not exceed 20-30 seconds.

2. Is the text real, in the sense that it conveys information that the students need and want? An example would be the day's menu, or information about a forthcoming field trip. Is it realistic, in that it contains information of a kind that they may need and want in the future? Here the range of topics is broad: descriptions of places and things, games and processes like changing a tire or cooking beans, brief biographical statements about prominent persons, these and many others. The degree to which a given text is realistic of course depends on the students with whom it is to be used. Recipes will be more realistic for girls than for boys; texts on animal husbandry will be very realistic for a few groups of students, but unrealistic for most. Folk stories are comparatively unrealistic for everyone, except insofar as listening to and telling such stories constitutes an essential social grace.

3. Are the sentences short and uncomplicated?

4. How many new words does the text contain? Texts that are on the same topic, such as weather forecasts, may here be considered as a group, since the first such text, whichever it is, will have a comparatively large number of new words, which will recur in other texts in the same group.

Once you have picked out the texts, you may want to tamper with them. You can do so in a number of different ways. From the least to the most drastic, they are:

1. Correction of typographical errors. Even this much editing is not always desirable: students must become accustomed sometime to making their own adjustments as they read.

2. Partial rewriting of one or two sentences which, though quite correct and idiomatic, nevertheless contain more than their share of difficult constructions.

3. Rewriting the entire original, using shorter, simpler sentences but retaining the same vocabulary.

Here, for example, is a written source:

> 'In 1919, under the post-World War I Treaty of Saint Germain, the Italian frontier was established along the "natural" and strategic boundary, the Alpine watershed.'

This sentence is neither extremely long nor extremely complicated, but it is still too long and complicated to be manageable for any but advanced students. If it is to serve as the basis for drills, it may be broken up into very short, very simple sentences that use the same vocabulary to say the same thing:

The nations signed the Treaty of St. Germain.

The treaty was signed in 1919.

The treaty was signed after World War I.

The treaty established the frontier of Italy.

The frontier followed a strategic boundary.

> Some people said the boundary was natural.
>
> The boundary was the Alpine watershed.

If, on the other hand, the text is to be used only for comprehension and as a general model for writing, these very short sentences may be recombined into a more graceful version which is still much easier than the original:

> The Treaty of St. Germain, which was signed in 1919 after World War I, established the frontier of Italy. The boundary that the frontier followed was the Alpine watershed. This was a strategic boundary, and some people said that it was also a natural one.

With each text, the student's goal is to assimilate it, so that its contents -- its words, and the structures that they exemplity -- will be available to him for future use. Before he can assimilate it, he must digest it, and before food can be digested it must be chewed. Just how long digestion will take, and just how much chewing is necessary of course depend on each student's ability and on his prior knowledge of the target language. Nevertheless, with beginning students the materials developer will want to supply a certain amount of 'apparatus', the purpose of which is to chop the text up so that the process of mastication can begin.

Pedagogical apparatus is obviously related to Assumption II, which calls for systematic drill and organized procedures. It is also related to Assumption V ('Pluralism'), for one of its chief functions is to insure that the student handles each part of the text in two or more ways. Some common kinds of apparatus are:

1. Questions over the text.
2. Partially blanked-out versions which the student can read aloud, supplying prepositions, or articles, or verb endings, or some other component. See Lesson 9 of *An Active Introduction to Newspaper Swahili*.
3. Lists of words from the texts, with instructions to see each one in certain ways. (Lessons 9 and 18 of *An Active Introduction to Newspaper Swahili*.)
4. Manipulative drills, such as those illustrated in Lesson 18 of *An Active Introduction to Newspaper Swahili*.

Remember that each kind of apparatus can be modified in hundreds of subtle ways. The following examples should not be adhered to very closely.

LESSON 9

Vocabulary Listen to the Swahili sentences, repeat them aloud, and practice until you can give them easily and correctly in response to the English sentences.

Msemaji wa serikali alisema nini?	What did the spokesman for the government say?
Alisema kwamba mkutano utafanywa.	He said that a meeting would be held.
Madiwani wote watahudhuria mkutano.	All the councillors will attend the meeting.
Mkutano uliahirishwa mpaka leo.	The meeting was postponed until today.
Wanachama wote watawachagua viongozi wao.	All the members will choose their leaders.
Ushirika una komiti mbali mbali.	The cooperative has various different committees.
Wajumbe walitayarisha katiba.	The representatives prepared a constitution.

Text Listen to the text, read it aloud, and then check with the English translation.

Kakamega: Msemaji wa Kakamega County Council ametangaza kwamba kutakuwako na mkutano wa madiwani wa konseli hiyo hivi leo leo Ijumaa, Septemba 9 kuanzia saa tatu unusu asubuhi. Mkutano huo utakuwa wa kuwachagua wajumbe wa komiti mbali mbali za konseli hiyo.

Taifaleo, 9 Septemba 1966

Kakamega. A spokesman for the Kakamega County Council has announced that there will be a meeting of the councillors of that council today, Friday, September 9, beginning at 9:30 a.m. The (aforesaid) meeting will be for electing members of various committees of the (aforementioned) council.

Supply concords — All blanks are to be filled orally. Writing in the book would spoil it for future practice.

_semaji _a Kakamega County Council _metangaza kwamba _takuwa(-o) na _kutano _a _diwani _a konseli h_o hivi leo Ijumaa. _kutano h_o _takuwa _a ku_chagua _jumbe _a komiti mbali mbali _a konseli h_o.

Supply affixes

Msem__ wa Kakamega County Council a__tangaza _amba ku___wa(-) na mkut__o wa konseli Ijumaa __anz__ saa tatu asubuhi. Mkutano ____ u__wa wa ____chagua wajumbe ____ komiti _____ za konseli ___.

Questions

1. Mkutano utaanza saa tatu unusu usiku?
2. Mkutano huo utakuwa wa kuwachagua wajumbe wa komiti mbali mbali?
3. Mkutano huo utafanyika Kakamega?

4. Mkutano utakuwa lini?
5. Mkutano huo utakuwa wa madiwani wa konseli ya wilaya gani?
6. Mkutano huo utawachagua wajumbe wa komiti gani?
7. Habari za mkutano huo zimetangazwa na nani?

Glossary

msemaji (1,2)	speaker, spokesman
kwamba	that
diwani (1)	councillor
madiwani (2)	
leo	today
-chagua	to select, elect
mjumbe (1,2)	messenger, representative
mbalimbali	various, different
or: mbali mbali	

Use each of these words in a short sentence based on the text. Then, if you have studied Swahili elsewhere, go on and use each word in a short sentence that is not based on the text. Ordinarily, these sentences should be factually true as well as grammatically correct.

LESSON 18

Vocabulary Listen to the Swahili sentences, repeat them aloud, and practice until you can give them easily and correctly in response to the English sentences.

Serikali inatayarisha mpango wa maendeleo.	The government is preparing a for development.
Mambo ya uchumi yalizungumzwa.	Matters of economics were discussed.
Mawaziri wote walifika pamoja.	All the ministers arrived together.
Chama hicho kina mali nyingi.	That organization has much wealth/ many resources.
Bw. Ayodo alikuwa Waziri wa Mali za Asili.	Mr. Ayodo was Minister of Natural Resources.
Wanachama wengi walifika mapema.	Many members arrived early.

Text Listen to the text, read it aloud, and then check with the English translation.

> Waziri wa Mipango ya Uchumi na Maendeleo, Bw. T.J. Mboya, jana alisema kwamba yeye pamoja na Waziri wa Mali za Asili, Bw. S.O. Ayodo hawatahudhuria mkutano utakaofanywa South Nyanza Jumapili wiki hii.
>
> Mjumbe wa Homa Bay, Bw. Ngala-Arok, ambaye alitayarisha mkutano huo, alikuwa amesema hapo mapema kwamba Mawaziri hao wawili watahudhuria na msemaji mkuu atakuwa Makamu wa Rais, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga.
>
> Baraza, 20 Januari 1966

The Minister of Economic Planning and Development, Mr. T.J. Mboya, said yesterday that he together with the Minister of Natural Resources would not attend the meeting that will be held in South Nyanza this week.

The representative of Homa Bay, Mr. Ngala-Arok, who arranged the (aforementioned) meeting, had said earlier that the (aforementioned) two ministers would attend and [that] the principal speaker would be the Vice-President, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga.

Practice until you can anticipate the second sentence in each pair after reading or hearing the first.

Mawaziri wamefika.	The ministers have arrived.
Mawaziri walikuwa wamefika kabla ya Ijumaa.	The ministers had arrived before Friday.
Katiba imetayarishwa.	A constitution has been prepared.
Katiba ilikuwa imetayarishwa kabla ya Ijumaa.	A constitution had been prepared before Friday.
Uchaguzi umefanywa.	An election has been held.
Uchaguzi ulikuwa umefanywa kabla ya Ijumaa.	An election had been held before Friday.
Msemaji ametoa tangazo.	A spokesman has made an announcement.
Msemaji alikuwa ametoa tangazo kabla ya Ijumaa.	A spokesman had made an announcement before Friday.
Rais amewachagua mawaziri.	The President has chosen the ministers.
Rais alikuwa amewachagua mawaziri kabla ya Ijumaa.	The President had chosen the minister before Friday.

Questions

1. Bw. T.J. Mboya na Bw. S.O. Ayodo watahudhuria mkutano utakaofanywa South Nyanza?
2. Mjumbe wa Homa Bay alitayarisha mkutano?
3. Msemaji mkuu atakuwa Makamu wa Rais, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga?
4. Bw. Ngala-Arok ni mjumbe wa wapi?
5. Mkutano huo utafanywa siku gani?
6. Bw. T.J. Mboya alisema nini?
7. Msemaji mkuu atakuwa nani?

Glossary

mpango (3,4)	plan
uchumi (14)	economics
pamoja	together, jointly
mali (10)	property, goods
asili (9)	nature
mapema	early, earlier

Use each of these words in a short sentence based on the text. Then, if you have studied Swahili elsewhere, go on and use each word in a short sentence that is not based on the text. Ordinarily, these sentences should be factually true as well as grammatically correct.

What we have said so far applies primarily to texts that have been taken from sources that already existed, such as newspapers, cookbooks, and radio broadcasts. For even greater flexibility, and even greater immediacy, native speakers may also devise texts to order. This may be done in more than one way.

The most dramatic way of originating a microtext is to allow the class to suggest a topic at the beginning of the same hour in which the text is to be used. The instructor is asked to speak on this topic, completely impromptu, for about 30 seconds. He is told that someone will signal him at the end of that time. He then begins to speak. There may be a fair number of hesitations and false starts, but most people with whom I have tried this have been able to do it.

At the end of 30 seconds, the instructor is stopped, and immediately asked to 'say the same thing, trying not to add any ideas or leave any ideas out, but changing the wording if you like'. Here is his opportunity to smoothe the text out, avoiding the false starts and incomplete sentences of the first version, and perhaps improving its organization at the same time. This should be repeated until he has produced three or four versions of the text -- a total elapsed time of under 3 minutes. By this time, he will generally have settled on a fairly stable version. This is then available for use according to any of a number of standard procedures.

This method of originating microtexts is dramatic, but it does not always work. A few instructors have found that having to improvise aloud in front of a class is too much of a strain on them. Even when this is not so, a group of two or more instructors teaching in the same program cannot make frequent use of impromptu microtexts, since the vocabulary given to one class would soon be quite different from that given to another. Under these circumstances, a committee of instructors can originate a text in written form. The following day, this text is given to all the instructors, who use it in class on the day after that. The purpose of the written text is to keep the instructors more or less together. It should not be distributed to the students. Each instructor should supply his own impromptu oral paraphrases of it in class.

If the students are allowed to suggest topics, microtexts can rate very high in responsiveness (Assumption III) and in user responsibility (Assumption IV).

No matter how a microtext is originated, it should be natural and authentic. Within this general restriction, sentences should be kept rather short. The speaker should attempt to communicate with his hearers, rather than to amaze or baffle them.

After the students have heard a text three or four times, they should work with it according to some well-defined procedure. One such procedure is the following:

1. Students ask questions in the target language, in order to clarify the meanings of new words.

2. Instructor asks questions on the text, trying to ask in such a way that the students will give the right answer on the first try. The first questions may suggest alternative answers, so that the student can reply by simply repeating part of what he has just heard: Q. Did he go home, or to the market? A. (He went) to the market. As the student answers the questions, he is reproducing parts of the original text.

3. Students take turns in telling things that they remember from the text. They are still reproducing parts of the text, but now the parts may be longer, and there is no question from the teacher to suggest form or content.

4. Students try to retell the entire original in their own words, until one of them can do it with no mistakes. Then they try to tell it in the length of the time that the instructor used, still without mistakes.

5. Students write the text down, either by dictation or from memory, and read it back.. Now they have a permanent record of the text, for later review. The written version may also be supplemented by the same kinds of apparatus that we discussed about (   ).

APPENDIX 10.4

WORKING ASSUMPTIONS AND THE 'MODULAR APPROACH'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

For eight years, this writer (hereinafter referred to as 'I') has been connected with the teaching of African languages at the Foreign Service Institute and in the Peace Corps. Experience has been a stern teacher, but some of the expedients which have been devised under these circumstances have become objects of comment and even of imitation outside FSI. The present paper is an attempt to summarize this work.

Thanks are due to a large number of people, but a preliminary draft is not an appropriate place to list them. The principal authors of the texts from which examples have been taken are Elton Anglada, Ernest Dunn, Arthur Levy, Deoki Sharma, James W. Stone and Lloyd B. Swift.

WORKING ASSUMPTIONS

This section states five working assumptions about adult learning of foreign languages. Later sections describe a number of procedures which are consistent with them. Both the assumptions and the procedures have evolved together over the years, but most recently in the context of the Foreign Service Institute and of Peace Corps language training.

The assumptions concern respectively 'Usability', 'Organization', 'Responsiveness', 'Responsibility', and 'Pluralism'.

Assumption I ('Usability'). People learn features of a language best if they use those features immediately, instead of just mimicking, memorizing and manipulating forms. This assumption is contrary to the time-honored practice of delaying 'free conversation' until the end of the second semester or the second year. One may also distinguish between 'real' use and 'realistic' use. I *really* use the question 'What time is it?' only if (a) I don't know what time it is and (b) I want to know what time it is. I may use the same question *realistically* if I can foresee the time when I might really use it. Some sentences are susceptible of neither real nor realistic use: 'The child sees vegetables in the afternoon.' Others might possibly find real use, but so rarely that planned realistic practice is impossible: 'Plumbers never mow hay.'

Corollary 1. Each new word and each new grammatical feature should be used (not just practiced), either really or realistically, as early as possible. It should be used as often as necessary to integrate it into the student's repertoire and to insure that it will be retained.

Corollary 2. Other things being equal, spontaneous material is better than pre-existing printed material. This is because language is really used only as a part of life. Printed materials are at best a record of past life; at worst they have very little relation to life past, present or future.

Assumption II ('Organization'). On the elementary level, there must be order in the introduction of new phonological, grammatical and lexical problems, and systematic drill on alien mechanical features, and some way of organizing classroom procedures.

Corollary 1. Every teacher needs three qualities: (a) perspicacity (in order to see what the students need from day to day and from moment to moment); (b) resourcefulness (in order to supply what they need); and (c) memory (in order to insure that what is being done now harmonizes with what has already been done).

Corollary 2. Because a teacher's perspicacity and/or resourcefulness and/or memory are more or less limited, order and organization normally require something in the way of printed materials. This is why spontaneous materials (Assumption I, Corollary 2) cannot make up the whole of a course of study.

Assumption III ('Responsiveness'). Individuals, but also groups, vary widely not only in general language aptitude and in degree of extrinsic motivation, but also in the lexical content that they can make immediate use of, in the approaches that they will put up with, and in the methods that are appropriate for them. Some students, but only some, can profit from spending the first 15 hours of class on phonological drills; some students, but only some, want to start out with "What's your name and where are you from?"; some but only some thrive on the memorization of dialogs; one group plans to drill wells for two years, another group plans to teach English, and still another expects to monitor radio broadcasts. Tolerance for one or another approach depends partly on the coordinator or supervisor of the program, partly on the past experience of the students themselves.

Assumption IV ('Responsibility'). Other things being equal, the program will be more effective if the students and instructors feel that they have some control over both content and method. Materials ought therefore to provide for transferring to the users as much responsibility as they are prepared to handle. The skills and attitudes of self-sufficiency in language study are in fact an important part of the aims of any well-run language training program.

Assumption V ('Pluralism'). No one format, and no one system however ingenious, can be sufficient for any one student or group of students. What is seen only once will not be perceived, and what has been perceived from only one point of view will not be assimilated. A student who uses the Swahili word *kukaza* 'to set, emphasize' authentically has met it more than once. If he has met it five times, some of those instances were in one context, but others were in other contexts. He has not only met the word in varied contexts. He has also seen that *kukaza* is related to *kukaa* 'to stay' as *kujaza* 'to fill' is related to *kujaa* 'to become full'. Or again, the student who can really handle the tag questions (*can't we*? *didn't you*?) in English has memorized them as parts of dialogs, he has done manipulative drills with them, and he has used them in unstructured conversations. Procedures and systems and approaches supplement one another more than they supersede one another.

THE 'MODULAR' APPROACH TO MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

Most language courses violate some or all of these four assumptions. One reason is that they attempt to be too massive and too permanent. Great quantities of curricular concrete and steel are assembled and formed into a mighty bridge across the chasm, in anticipation that the oncoming troops (the students) will want to cross at just the point where the bridge is.

This anticipation is often disappointed. When it is, the monolithic-style course fails on responsiveness (Assumption III), it almost always fails to provide for user responsibility (Assumption IV), and often it is not directly usable (in the sense of Assumption I). Its one strength (unless it is poorly constructed even by its own standards) is in organization, and superior organization alone will not produce superior results.

Most of the courses that I have written or used have tried to be monoliths. The needs and the mood of the students have never been exactly those that the course was written for, but the discrepancies have often been small enough so that some kind of useful result could be achieved. Peace Corps language training has been quite another matter. Students' specialized interests are at the same time more varied and more specialized; trainees are more conscious of their own dissatisfaction with both content and method; instructors are mostly willing but inexperienced, brought up in an educational system that knows nothing of audio-lingual materials. Peace Corps programs have also demonstrated the value of giving to the users -- both the students and the instructors -- a certain amount of leeway for their own creativity. These observations have led me to a new approach to materials development, one which seems more appropriate to Peace Corps needs, but which also seems promising for programs of a more conventional sort.

The label that I have applied to this approach is 'modular'. Instead of a single volume, with drills, dialogs, notes, etc. printed in fixed order relative to one another, there are separate fascicles, or 'modules', which can be used individually, or in various combinations with one another. Instead of building a bridge, we supply a set of pontoons. Each major component of the course takes the form of one or more modules. One fascicle may consist of phonological drills; another may be a very brief reference grammar that covers only those matters of high text frequency; another may consist of dialogs, with cross references to the short grammar in lieu of separate grammatical notes. Some new types of module are described in later sections of this paper. One advantage of modular construction is that it allows for more user responsibility (Assumption IV): those who want to spend the first 15 hours on phonology can do so, but those who find that kind of activity unmotivating can wait until what is for them a more appropriate time. Dialog memorization, newspaper reading and study of grammar may proceed in any order, or simultaneously. A second advantage is that, for example, a set of readings appropriate for well diggers may be replaced by a set appropriate for TB control workers without tearing the whole course apart. One or more modules may even consist of spontaneous materials. In any case, modular construction may lead to greater responsiveness (Assumption III) and hence to greater usability (Assumption I). An incidental advantage for the overworked linguist who is producing materials on marginal time is that one fascicle can be completed and put into use in a small fraction of the time it takes to write a complete course.

It may be objected that drawing on an array of modules and combining them into a successful course places heavy demands on the teacher's ingenuity and judgment. That is certainly true. But exactly the same is true if one is to teach *successfully* from a printed course, bound between covers, conceived and written by strangers who were removed by many months and many hundreds of miles from one's present students.

The modular principle is of course not new. It is implied by the existence of alternate, parallel versions of some courses, and by series of optional readers that have been prepared for some of the more widely taught languages. Beyond that, however, it has seldom been followed either consciously or very far. The earliest deliberate attempt to produce an array of modules was by Lloyd B. Swift in his *Kituba Basic Course*. This was in fact a set of one central and five optional fascicles which were bound in a single volume for reasons of economy. According to Swift's introduction:

> "This course consists of a 'primer' in the language and five subject-oriented groups of lessons. The primer is intended to introduce the major grammatical structures of the language, to develop in the student an adequate pronunciation, and to present a certain amount of useful vocabulary for a variety of situations. The primer is prerequisite to the rest of the course, and the student is expected to go through it in order, as each unit presupposes the vocabulary and the grammar of the earlier ones.
>
> "The subject-oriented lesson groups all presuppose the vocabulary and grammar of the entire primer, and each group is intended to be studied from the beginning --the vocabulary within a given group being cumulative. However, no subject-oriented lesson group depends in any way on any other group so that the student is free to pursue his study of these lesson groups in any order after he has finished the primer.
>
> "This arrangement is intended to provide maximum flexibility. The class with only a few hours of time to devote to classroom drill with an instructor may find it possible to cover the primer only. Students with more time will wish to select such of the subject fields covered in the later lessons as are of most interest to them. Students in intensive courses with at least 300 hours of class and laboratory will be able to cover the entire content of the course. An additional element of flexibility is provided in that the primer may be

used as an introduction to be followed by more specialized subject-oriented lessons which are not included in this course but which may be constructed by an instructor or a linguist to meet the specialized needs of particular students."

The modular principle is exemplified less neatly, but in more variety, by the array of Swahili materials produced by the Foreign Service Institute. Publicly available are Swahili Basic Course, which contains dialogs and manipulative drills; An Active Introduction to Swahili: General Conversation and An Active Introduction to Swahili: Geography which present the rudiments of the language very briefly in terms of two different kinds of subject matter, using the 'microwave' format (see). Not yet published are a Learner's Synopsis of Swahili Structure and a series of newspaper readings. These are discussed in

The Russian section of FSI has also begun an array of modules. One concerns itself with pronunciation and spelling. A second presents rudiments of the morphology in connection with a simplified table-top model of Moscow. A third consists of readings on the geography of the Soviet Union. (None of these is publicly available at present.)

An excellent example of the modular principle is a set of materials for Sinhala, the principal language of Ceylon. One module introduces the writing system. A second is a grammatical sketch of Sinhala. The third consists mainly of a series of 'microwave cycles' (see). The series is broken into a subseries on classroom expressions, a subseries on matters of general conversation, and further subseries on specialized topics such as rice growing and the preparation of food. These materials were prepared for the Peach Crops and are unpublished.

This paper is itself constructed on the modular principle: after reading this first section, the reader may go on to the remaining sections in any combination and in any order he chooses. 'Microwave' and 'microtexts' are formats for individual lessons; the 'flexible frame' is a strategy for relating lessons to one another; a 'learner's synopsis' is what I consider to be the most basic kind of module; 'routine manipulation' is, as far as I can see, still an indispensable part of any language course.

'ROUTINE MANIPULATIONS'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

Negative advertising has been with us at least since the days of 'No Stoop, No Squat, No Squint,' and purveyors of $10.98 language courses have made a fortune from offering 'No Tiresome Drills!' and 'No Confusing Grammar Rules!' Whether drills are necessarily tiresome remains to be seen, but there can be little doubt that they are necessary. The reason is that a language does not consist of sounds and words alone. It also has its stock of constructions or processes or rules. Just as a speaker must choose the right words for his purpose, and the right sounds to make them intelligible, so he must develop facility in putting them into appropriate grammatical settings. Consider the following English examples, which could be matched from any other language. The principal words are tank and leak.

Barely intelligible.	Clear and idiomatic.
Tank leak.	The tank leaks.
	A tank is leaking.
	The tank is leaking.
Tank leak, no?	Is the tank leaking?
	The tank is leaking, isn't it?
	Does the tank leak?
	The tank leaks, doesn't it?
Tank no leak.	The tank doesn't leak.
	The tank isn't leaking.
	The tank hasn't leaked yet.
	The tank won't leak.

As these examples show, grammatical inadequancy not only sounds funny; it often carries with it a certain amount of ambiguity.

A grammatical construction cannot be mastered by itself. The student may repeat one or more examples of the construction after the teacher, and he may see other examples of it in connected texts, and he still may not comprehend it completely. The study of grammar is the study of relationships, such as the contrast between *This tank leaked* and *This tank has leaked*. Any relationship has at least two terms, and the student will not internalize a relationship by practicing only one of its terms. This is why dialogs or microwave cycles or other kinds of basically textual material are by themselves inadequate. This is why we need systematic practice material, both drills and exercises. A 'drill,' as the term is used here, is an activity which allows for only one correct response to a given stimulus: if the student is told to substitute the word *pencil* for *pen* in the sentence *I forgot my pen*, then the only possible correct reply is *I lost my pencil*. An 'exercise' allows the student some latitude. If the student is instructed to 'substitute some other noun for *pen*' in the above sentence, or if he is asked to reply to the question '*What did you lose?*' then he is doing an 'exercise.' The need for texts *and* drills *and* exercises is one example of the principle of pluralism (Assumption V).

There are two principal kinds of manipulative drill: substitution and transformation. The purpose of a substitution drill is to let the student see and practice a large number of highly similar examples of a single construction:

Pattern sentence: I brought my camera.

New cue:	Expected response:
flashlight	I brought my flashlight.
raincoat	I brought my raincoat.
gloves	I brought my gloves.
homework	I brought my homework.
golf clubs	I brought my golf clubs.

Even in such a simple drill as this, considerations of realism (Assumption I) will encourage us to avoid such old standby nouns as *book*, *pen*, *pencil*; the same considerations require us to use *golf clubs* or *homework* only with students who are likely to have golf clubs or homework that they sometimes carry around with them.

There are many other varieties of substitution drill. This is not the place to catalog them. One is 'substitution-correlation,' in which a change of a major word at one place in the sentence entails a grammatical change somewhere else.

Pattern sentence: I brought my camera.

New cue:	Expected response:
(John)	John brought his camera.
(Mary)	Mary brought her camera
everyone	Everyone brought his camera.
some people	Some people brought their cameras.

Obviously, *John* and *Mary* stand respectively for the names of men and women known to the students.

Substitution-correlation drills lend themselves to practice of gender-number concords, as in the above example, to matching tenses of verbs with appropriate time expressions, to matching prepositions with the nouns, verbs or adjectives in a sentence, and so forth. Some important relationships, however, cannot be drilled in this way. For these relationships, transformation drills are needed.

SAMPLE PAIR OF SENTENCES:

Do you go swimming every day?	No, but I went swimming yesterday.

ADDITIONAL PAIRS OF SENTENCES:

Do you buy cigarettes every day?	No, but I bought cigarettes yesterday.
Do you eat breakfast every day?	No, but I ate breakfast yesterday.
Do you get mail every day?	No, but I got mail yesterday.

The purpose of this drill is of course to practice the single relationship which unites go with went, buy with bought, eat with ate and get with got.

A different kind of transformation drill combines two short sentences into a longer one:

SAMPLE SET OF SENTENCES:

CUE:	EXPECTED RESPONSE:
Some trainees got mail. Some trainees were happy.	The trainees who got mail were happy.

ADDITIONAL SETS:

Some people ate custard. Some people got sick.	The people who ate custard got sick.
Some people took the bus. Some people were late.	The people who took the bus were late.

etc.

Again, one should try to keep from falling back on such clichês as:

Some students studied hard. Some students got good grades.	The students who studied hard got good grades.

The design of drills is one thing; actually writing them for a permanent set of materials is quite another. What for one user are exactly enough drills on a given point are for a second user too many, and for a third user too few. The materials developer is certain only that he cannot please everybody. To some extent this problem can be eased by transferring to the user the responsibility for deciding how many drills there will be (Assumption IV). To do this, one must first make a very useful but seldom noted distinction between 'routine manipulations' and other manipulative drills. This distinction is based simply on the frequency, importance and difficulty of a distinction. These factors vary from language to language. In French, for example, the tag question *n'est ce pas?* is added to sentences about as often as the corresponding tag questions are used in English. Yet *n'est ce pas?* requires much less practice than is needed to master English *isn't it?* *won't it?* *won't they?* *can't I?* *haven't you?* *mustn't she?* and so forth. On the other hand, changing from present to past tenses in the best known European languages including English is troublesome: *get*, *got*, but *set*, *set*; *sink*, *sank*, but *think*, *thought*. In Swahili this difference is always made by replacing the prefix *na* by the prefix *li*. And in some languages, the verb doesn't change to show tense at all. A French speaker, whose definite and indefinite articles work something like *the* and *a* in English, will need less drill on these words than will a speaker of Russian, whose language lacks articles altogether.

A difficult manipulation which is however infrequent and relatively unimportant is the relationship between:

We waited four hours.	*Seldom have we waited* so long.
I ate fourteen pancakes.	*Seldom have I eaten* so many.

Points like this will not be made the subject of 'routine manipulation.' They are best handled by writing manipulative drills ahead of time, as is usually done in the preparation of language textbooks.

Here is a three-step outline for conducting routine manipulations.

1. Decide what grammatical points are to be made the subjects of routine manipulation. In English, for speakers of most other languages, one might list the following:

   a. Tense changes: he goes, he went, he has gone, etc.
   b. Relative constructions: the speaker that we listened to most carefully, etc.
   c. Negation: he can't sleep, he doesn't sleep, etc.
   d. Tag questions: doesn't he? do they? won't I? etc.
   e. Prepositions: in (a city), on (a street), at (an address), etc.
   f. Direct & indirect questions: When does he have to leave? Ask him when he has to leave, etc.

2. Prepare a sample drill for each point in the above list. Some will require more than one drill, but the total number should not be more than 20. Three samples for English are:

TENSE DRILL

IN STIMULUS SENTENCE: 'Simple' form of a verb
IN RESPONSE SENTENCE: 'Past participle' of the same verb

When will they go?	Haven't they gone yet?
When will they leave here?	Haven't they left here yet?
When will they catch the bus?	Haven't they caught the bus yet?
When will they get back?	Haven't they gotten back yet?

TENSE DRILL

IN STIMULUS SENTENCE: 'Past' form of a verb
IN RESPONSE SENTENCE: 'Simple' form of the same verb

They went yesterday.	When did they go?
They left here yesterday.	When did they leave here?
They caught the bus yesterday.	When did they catch the bus?
They got back.	When did they get back?

PREPOSITIONS DRILL

AS STIMULUS: An adjective
IN THE RESPONSE: The same adjective with an appropriate preposition

interested	Are you interested in it?
dependent	Are you dependent on it?
independent	Are you independent of it?
worried	Are you worried about it?

3. Write a brief reminder of each of the sample drills. This is usually a single line from the drill:

When will they go?	Haven't they gone yet?
They went yesterday.	When did they go?
dependent	Are you dependent on it?

A complete set of these reminders, for all the routine manipulations. Affix a copy of this list to the wall of the classroom, or to the front of the instructor's notebook.

With a moderate amount of training, the instructor will be able to make up his own drills on these points, drawing his material from dialogs, stories, and other meaningful use of the language. Suppose for example, that the students have just finished working with a 'microtext' like the following:

> The grocery store we buy groceries from is located about two blocks from our house. It has a well stocked dairy counter and a well stocked delicatessen counter. The food is well displayed, it's a nice bright light store, it has a very large parking lot, there's no trouble finding parking; it's located near other shops so that it makes -- ah -- general shopping easier. It's located in Bailey's Crossroads near the E.J. Korvette store there.

The instructor might improvise drills like these:

TENSE DRILL: 'simple verb' vs. 'past participle'.

When will they buy groceries?	Haven't they bought groceries yet?
When will they stock the counter?	Haven't they stocked it yet?
When will they display the food?	Haven't they displayed it yet?
When will they find parking?	Haven't they found it yet?

PREPOSITION DRILL:

E.J. Korvette Store	It's near the E.J. Korvette Store.
Bailey's Crossroads	It's in Bailey's Crossroads.
our house	It's two blocks from our house.
far	It's far from here.
our house and Bailey's C.	It's between our house and Bailey's Crossroads.

Drills constructed on this basis are no longer an obstacle course which the student must climb through before he can get to meaningful discourse. Instead, they are offshoots from and buttresses for his experience with real use of the language.

THE 'MICRO-KOR PLAN'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

Recent discussions with people in Micronesia and Korea have helped to clarify my thinking about how in-country language training might be conducted. The result is the 'Micro-Kor Plan,' which is presented here for your comment. With modifications, I think it may also be applicable to other training situations.

Language training, whether in the United States or in the host country, should probably begin with a brief introductory period (perhaps 75-150 hours) which is devoted to establishing pronunciation and familiarizing the student with the principal structural devices. This is the stage at which intensive audio-visual instruction, perhaps programmed and perhaps even self-instructional, can be dramatically useful, if it is available. Emphasis is quite frankly on manipulation of the mechanics of the language, so that in the stage that follows, these matters will already be partially familiar to the students.

After this introductory phase, each day's work is divided into two parts: an academic 'base' and a non-academic 'application.' The academic base is developed through a continuing relationship with a 'teacher;' the non-academic 'application' is developed through a continuing relationship with a 'host.' The host is an individual or (better) a family that is able and willing to spend at least two or three hours a day with the student. The relationship with the host(s) may or may not include shared residence. The host(s) probably know little or no English.

The idea of having language students live with local people is of course not new. But in both Micronesia and Korea there were reports that "I lived with them, yes, but we never seemed to know what to say to each other." Apparently the full potential of residence with native speakers was hardly being scratched. It is this problem with which the present memorandum is chiefly concerned.

In the Micro-Kor Plan, each day's work is built around a 'micro-task' -- a short, practical assignment which the student hopes to accomplish together with his host(s). Learning to 'say' something is then only a step toward learning to 'do' something. In planning these 'tasks,' one must remember that recurrent work is not necessarily matched by recurrent language: two women who wash clothes together every day probably do not say to one another "Now I am putting the clothes into the water. Now I am adding soap" every time they perform these actions.

Microtasks may be either primarily verbal or primarily physical, and they may center on acquiring information, or on acquiring skills.

	Verbal	Physical
Information	Eliciting	Exploring physical environment
Skill	Making culturally useful judgments	Coaching by host(s)

Examples of these four kinds of microtask are given below, in terms of African culture:

1. • Eliciting information:
   a) Find out about your host's family: how they are related, what kinship terms they use in referring to one another and in addressing one another.

- b) Find out what kinds of weather you may expect at various times of year.

2. Making culturally useful judgments:
   - a) Find out which trees are suitable for cutting as firewood, which are not, and why.
   - b) Find out which bananas are suitable for picking, which for eating raw, which for other purposes.

3. Exploring:
   - a) For each of the following common articles find out what it is, where it is kept, who uses it, and what it is used for: jembe, panga, mwiko, taa.
   - b) Find out the location from which your hosts get each of the following. Be able to tell how to get there from your house: water, firewood, oil.

4. Coaching:
   - a) Have your host(s) coach you until you can cultivate maize or water cabbage efficiently.
   - b) Have your host(s) coach you in playing a distinctive local game.

In the 'academic' part of the program (say four hours in the morning), the 'teacher' explains the task to the student and teaches him the language and the non-verbal behavior that he thinks the student is likely to need, either for production or for comprehension, in his conversation with the host(s). In the 'non-academic' part (probably the afternoon and/or evening), the student would use what he had learned, and report on it the next day to his teacher. During the afternoon task sessions, the student would be supported 'vertically' by the morning's preparatory session, but also 'horizontally' by the fact that the hosts have become partially familiar with his strengths and weaknesses. Needless to say, the student and the host(s) will and should interact in other ways as well, but the daily task provides a definite yet shifting focus.

In a program like the one I have described, much of the material to be used in the academic component can be prefabricated. That is to say, such things as dialogs, vocabularies, 'microwaves,' and drills can be prepared for each 'task.' The teacher may add finishing touches, appropriate for what he knows of the actual people and places that will be involved. His goal as he does so is to anticipate, just as closely as he can, exactly what the student will want to ask, and exactly the answers he will get. The prospect of the afternoon's application thus keeps both the teacher and the materials developer on their toes.

The role of the language coordinator is obviously crucial. He must have three kinds of knowledge. He must know the student's language and culture, and the target language and culture, and how they contrast. He must also be familiar with rudimentary techniques of language teaching, and with the materials that are available. Finally, he must know what is going on in class, and what is going on between students and hosts. On the basis of all this knowledge, he will constantly be making decisions of two kinds. First are logistic decisions: who is to be where when and for how long, doing what. Second is choice of microtasks. These must be relevant to the interests of the student, and neither too large nor too small for a day's work.

We have said that the person who makes these decisions is the key figure in any language teaching project. His training is therefore the most crucial step in preparing for such a project His personality is the most crucial element in establishing and maintaing staff morale. And he is an indispensable participant in the preparation of the language materials themselves.

Although this plan of instruction was worked out originally for in-country training of students who are living with their hosts, it can be modified and used in other programs as well. If there are sufficient native speakers at the training site, one group can play the role of hosts while another group serves as conventional instructors. If there are not that many native speakers, the same person may serve part of the time as instructor for one class, and the rest of the time as host for another.

In summary, then:

1. Peace Corps training should be for life in the host country.
2. Life consists principally of relationships among people.
3. In any training situation, the most important fact is the relationships which exist and which are developing among instructors, among students, and between students and instructors.
4. Language acquisition is one medium in which these relationships may be established and in which they may (or may not) flourish.
5. The purpose of training is not to teach students language (and non-linguistic behavior), but to teach them to use it.

6. 'What happens between learner and teacher (or host) determines what is learned and how well it is learned.' But this statement is either true or false, depending on what we mean by 'happen.' If we mean something that occurs as a result of following a detailed script with complete stage directions, I suggest it is false. It is true if we mean what comes about as a result of the natural interaction of unique individuals. In this sense, the language coordinator lays the fire, provides the spark, and nurses the flame along until it catches; the job of the textbook writer is to provide highly combustible material.

APPENDIX 11

REPORT OF WORKING GROUP II

Task: Group of 6 volunteer car mechanics for Zambia. 300 hours of English. 2 years study and are 0 /1. One native speaker available.

Assumptions:

A number of teachers available including one native English teacher from Zambia.
Groups are of mixed profession.
Teaching groups of 8.
Time to be divided between general and technical English.

Goals: (General Language)

Volunteers have to function successfully in the target language.

(Technical Language)

Volunteer must have the language skill to teach and demonstrate specific technical skills.

(Cross-cultural)

Volunteer should be able to live happily and function successfully in the target culture.

Specific Aims:

1. To raise them to the minimum of S2 as a proficiency rating.
2. Volunteers must be able to understand East African English.
3. Volunteers must be able to write in English in order to compile reports.
4. I.e. S2. Working proficiency - able to perform routine social conversational skill - painful conversation - they tend to circumbende, able to do one's job, perform simple commands and directions but cannot sustain long conversations.

Details of Program:

300 hours of teaching time. 5-1/2 day week in 8 weeks. First week to be given to orientation with the program and the materials. High intensity language training in first four weeks.

Testing for aptitude and proficiency to occur before course. Groups to be homogeneous - levels of 0 to 1.

Aids available - equipment:

Language laboratory
Library - reference tapes
Library - teachers' reference books
students' " "
Work Shop
Old car
Field trips/excursions

Program

Phase I - first 4 weeks - see time table I.

A. General English.
Material to be used: L. G. Alexander - for the controlled 'Lab' centred text. This would be adapted and taken for the first three hours in the morning.
(No second language to be studied).

B. Directed conversations - one hour - based on materials from Alexander and practical English and using flexible frames.

C. Practical English - job-orientated - two hours.
No written work until the second week.

D. Tutorials - private study with teacher present - remedial work - could be taken in classroom or in language lab. (one hour).

E. Cultural activities - evenings. Volunteers may choose to attend one of the two activities provided or may use time for self-study (two hours).

Example activities:
Introduction of new personalities
Exploitation of classroom situation
Films - relevant and interesting
Brain Trust - panels
Talks from returned volunteers
Acting dialogues - role playing

F. Social evenings once week eg. films, plays etc.

Phase II - second half of course - see I.I.II

Program to fit into same time schedule. General English to be reduced to 2 hours. Practical English to continue in the afternoon (2 hours).

More time given in topical - cultural English to written work.
Self-study techniques should be developed.

Topic-area - should help to integrate the whole program - with the selected ideas or topics reinforcing structures and expanding the vocabulary - much of the vocabulary to be relevant to the area (2 hours).

Topics/Area Studies to be in forms of
1. Seminars
2. Newspapers dialogues
3. Literature - reference reading
4. Carefully prepared papers on selected subjects
5. Talks

Changes to the program should be somewhat radical - or else the program would become stagnant.

A. General English.
Alexander to be continued, but particular attention given to Grammar structures.

B. Directed English - becomes the Area study of topics - as the material or situations presented will be followed with discussion, simultaneous translation work, spontaneous discussion, dramatized situations with original dialogues.

C. Practical English to continue with more written work and student prepared talks and material (2 hours).

D. Tutorials - one hour at a time, with particular assistance to weaker students.

E. Cultural activities - to be dropped. Evenings left free for reading/study and preparation (note - need for training self-study methods - and research).

F. Cultural program is now incorporated in the morning's work.

General comments on the course:

Feed back from field essential and it must be reviewed.
Weekly oral testing - for proficiency in second half of the course.
Teacher's role?
What should the follow-up be?
How should teachers be prepared?
Essential that trainees become involved in the preparation of materials also.

Rough Draft of 3 major areas of the course:

Phase I.

General Language
1. Break down of program.

8-8.45 Revision
- acting out dialogues
- revising drills
Present the new unit.
9-9.45 30 minutes in lab - for drill work
Post-lab. - grammar structures
10-10.45 Situational dramatization[x] or present another unit

[x] Note: Students allowed to act situations with props (reality) without sticking to dialogues.

Directed English

Assumptions

1. To proceed from directed (structured) conversation to free spontaneous conversation.
   This shift will occur from a structured base to free conversation (i.e. flexible enough to embrace all situations including those which are not job-oriented).

2. With the aid of native teacher - reality will be stressed.

3. To ensure the validity to the lessons, instructors should consult with each other immediately after the conversation period.

Note: Staff meetings are essential. As a time for essential feedback - this directed period - should reinforce the whole program, by utilizing structures and vocabulary introduced in Alexander and the practical English. Teachers must also indicate which areas need to be developed or repeated. It is a time for re-evaluating the program and predicting the work to be accomplished, and also the amount of time in which it should be accomplished.

Role of the Teacher.

- to create situations to animate what has already been learnt
- to expand and reinforce the language work - giving continuity
- to give basic revision
- to involve all students when assigning roles or tasks
- to provide active continuity through the work so that previous lessons are always incorporated in the current lesson
- provide corrections - detecting weaknesses - preparing remedial work for the tutorial period
- attend the class of the other instructors
- better continuity

Role of the Student.

- to be encouraged to manipulate all previous lessons into live situations
- to encourage each other in group effort - maintaining morale.

Method, step 1. Revision of structures and vocabulary - to reinforce - expand - to give continuity, list structures and vocabulary to be revised but not to be shown to students.
Sample dialogue using props,
Action with commands,
Question, answer, dialogue.

step 2. Introduction of situation.
Native speaker presents the visual impression e.g. slide
The following guide to the teacher in providing the stimulus
Where?
What is it?
Who?

Who will be there?
What is happening?
i.e. Brief description bringing in the vocabulary - Frames to ensure understanding.

step 3. Instructor states the task.
Native speaker to take key role assuring all students are involved.
Changing of roles - allowing for more creative behavior.

step 4. Free conversation.
Have you ever lost anything?
Relating of own personal experience
- Free conversation.
  Students asking about particular experiences

Practical Language

PHASE I - PROGRAM. Weeks 1 - 4

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00 - 8:45			ALEXANDER			
9:00 - 9:45			Coffee Break			
10:00 - 10:45			ALEXANDER			
11:00 - 11:45			DIRECTED ENGLISH			
12:00			LUNCH			
1:15 - 2:00			PRACTICAL ENGLISH			FREE TIME
2:15 - 3:00			PRACTICAL ENGLISH			
3:15			Coffee Break SPORTS			
5:00 - 6:00			TUTORIALS			
6:00 - 7:00			DINNER			
7:00 - 8:00			FREE (Staff Meetings)			
8:00 - 10:00			Social Night CULTURAL ACTIVITIES			

PHASE II - PROGRAM. Weeks 5 - 8

8:00 - 8:45	ALEXANDER - Special Grammar	
9:00 - 9:45	Coffee Break	
10:00 - 10:45	TOPICS	
11:00 - 11:45	Cultural Orientation	
12:00	LUNCH	
1:15 - 2:00	PRACTICAL ENGLISH	FREE TIME
2:15 - 3:00		
3:15	Coffee Break SPORTS	
5:00 - 6:00	TUTORIALS	
6:00 - 7:00	DINNER	
7:00 - 8:00	STAFF MEETING	